

ANGLO- SOVIET JOURNAL

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VOLUME XVII ∞ NUMBER 2

SUMMER
1956

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The ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL

Summer 1956. Volume XVII, Number 2

Editor : Andrew Rothstein, M.A. Assistant Editor : Stella Jackson, B.A.
Editorial Office : 14 Kensington Square, London, W.8. Tel. : WEStern 1571.

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ANNUAL SUBSCRIPTION 10/- post free; SCR members 8/6; joint SCR/ASJ
subscription 19/- with reduction to 11/- for students. Single copies 2/6, post, etc., 3d.
Back numbers available.

Journal of the Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR

Printed by Letchworth Printers Ltd. (T.U.), Letchworth, Herts.

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in part, is permitted provided that the ASJ reference is given and a copy of the reproduc-
tion sent to the Editor.

Editorial

WE publish in this number an important Soviet enactment, in connection with which a retrospect may be convenient.

At the end of 1921, when the Ninth Congress of Soviets assembled, the position of Soviet Russia was truly appalling. Agriculture, stricken with a drought which had just plunged over 30,000,000 people into famine, had yielded far less than half its average pre-war output. Industrial output that year had been less than one-fifth of its meagre 1913 level—less than a third of the coal and a half of the oil, one-fortieth of the pig-iron and one-tenth of the sawn timber had been produced, and under one-half of the leather footwear, one-quarter of the matches, one-eighth of the cotton piece-goods and one-twentieth of the sugar. Transport was in a state of breakdown. The volume of currency in circulation was roughly 700 times that of 1913—but its purchasing power was less than one-twentieth of what had then been in circulation. Real wages were less than half of their pre-war level.

Moreover, Japanese forces still occupied the far eastern seaboard of Soviet Russia, and were openly arming White counter-revolutionaries. Rumanian troops and artillery were constantly attacking the Soviet borders throughout the summer. In October and November there were large-scale armed raids over the frontier from Finnish, Polish and Rumanian territory. The Western Powers were publicly making the reversal of basic economic changes in Russia since 1917 a condition for granting famine relief. The Soviet Government was still arbitrarily excluded from international bodies like the Danube Commission and the Washington Conference on Far Eastern affairs. A vast anti-Soviet conspiracy was discovered in the summer of that year. The Soviet Government was thus faced with menacing problems at every turn.

Nevertheless, bad as this situation was, it represented some improvement on the conditions of 1920—the last year of massive foreign invasion and large-scale civil war. The Soviet leaders found it appropriate, as a consequence, to secure from the Congress of Soviets a substantial restriction in the powers of the Extraordinary Commission (the Cheka), whose extra-judicial powers of arrest, trial and execution had been used from December 1917 onwards to combat black-marketing, economic sabotage, counter-revolutionary conspiracy and terrorism. Lenin said on this occasion :

“ We know that the virtues of a man may become his defects, and we know that the situation which has come into being imperatively requires the restriction of this institution to the purely political sphere. . . . We are now faced with the problem of developing civilian trade—the New Economic Policy necessitates this—and this requires more revolutionary legality. Naturally, in the circumstances of military attack, when they were taking the Soviet power by the throat, if we had then made this our main aim we should have been pedants, playing at revolution instead of making it. But the more we enter into the conditions of a stable and firm authority, and the further the development of civilian trade proceeds, the more urgently necessary it is to put forward the firm watchword of bringing about more revolutionary legality—and the narrower becomes the sphere of the institution which replies with a counter blow to every blow by the conspirators.”

In fact its powers were restricted as Lenin had proposed, by a Congress resolution developed into a law (February 6, 1922). This established the State Political Department (GPU), with limited powers of arrest and none of trial or sentence, in place of the Cheka. All offences of whatever nature had to go before the courts. Moreover, the following spring the Central Executive Committee of Soviets adopted a series of legal codes which sought, in President Kalinin's words on that occasion (May 17, 1922), to “ inculcate communist legality into the consciousness of every citizen of the Soviet Republic—even though this citizen might be a Kirgiz nomad at a distance of 10,000 versts from

Moscow—so that he should be proud in the knowledge that he has the possibility of seeking out his rights”.

But the summer of 1922 brought new ultimatums to the Soviet Government at the Genoa and Hague international conferences—to give up the economic changes effected by the revolution if it wanted peaceful relations with other countries. At the same time, the public trial of right-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries provided incontrovertible documentary evidence that certain foreign governments were financing terrorist and insurrectionary conspiracy within Soviet Russia.

One result was a new law (August 10, 1922) establishing a “Special Commission” under the chairmanship of the People’s Commissar for Internal Affairs, which had the right to exile dangerous persons to remote districts of the USSR without trial for up to three years, under GPU surveillance. This proved only the first step. Within the next nine months internal and external perils induced the Soviet Government to extend extra-judicial powers to the GPU—for exceptional cases, it is true—by establishing a Judicial Collegium (Division) of its governing board, with the right to try and sentence (in secret) persons accused of specially grave counter-revolutionary activity, and to inflict the death penalty itself. The new security organisation continued to function until 1934, although in many important cases it confined itself to investigations only, putting the results before the courts for regular trial.

Mid-way through 1934, in view of the successes of collectivisation in the countryside, the internal consolidation of Soviet society was thought to be so far advanced that the GPU was, by a decree of July 10, absorbed into the structure of the People’s Commissariat for Internal Affairs (NKVD, later MVD).

Yet a few months later (November 5), the reserve power of extra-judicial repression against “socially dangerous persons” was once more reintroduced. A “Special Conference” of the NKVD was set up, under the chairmanship of the People’s Commissar himself and composed of his deputies, a representative of the NKVD of the Russian Federation, the People’s Commissar for Internal Affairs of the Union Republic in which the offender’s activities were carried on, and the Chief of the Militia (Police) of the USSR. The Conference had the right of trial and sentence, up to a maximum penalty of confinement for five years in corrective labour camps (the penal settlements for long-term convicts).

The new body had no right to inflict the death penalty. But within less than a month S. M. Kirov was assassinated (December 1) ; and on the same day a draconic law was issued, providing for the accelerated trial of alleged terrorists by the Military Division of the Supreme Court—in camera, without counsel, the indictment being handed to the accused one day before the trial, and with no right of appeal—which in effect revived the powers of the Judicial Collegium of the GPU in respect of such offences. By a decree of September 14, 1937, very similar procedure was laid down for alleged sabotage and destructive acts (diversion) with counter-revolutionary intent. Thus, over a wide area of defence of the State, virtually extra-judicial procedure was once again reintroduced.

Of course, throughout the years 1934-7 there were increasingly grave external perils threatening the USSR. It is sufficient to recall the consolidation of the Nazi power in Germany in 1933, with its declared programme of expansion to the east ; the encouragement which Hitler was receiving, as far as this section of his programme was concerned, in many other countries ; the circumstances of the Hitler-Mussolini war on the Spanish Republic (from July 1936 onwards) ; and the German-Japanese “Anti-Comintern” Pact of November 1936. On the other hand, the Soviet Union’s growing internal strength—material, social and moral—was so enormous compared with its condition in the winter of 1921-2 that the necessity and wisdom of reintroducing in these

years the practically uncontrollable extra-judicial powers of repression which, at the earlier period, the Soviet Government had judged it possible to abandon is now questionable. At all events, recent tragic disclosures of abuses and perversions in Soviet policy over many years, with which our readers will be familiar, have also revealed that—as far as their administrative side is concerned—the series of measures taken between 1934 and 1937 played a most baleful part.

As part of the fight to remedy these abuses, a series of far-reaching legislative reforms has been adopted, among them (1) the abolition of the Special Conference (in the autumn of 1953); (2) the repeal of the laws of December 1, 1934, and September 14, 1937, with various subsidiary enactments (in April 1956); (3) the re-establishment (in May 1955) of the powers of the Procurator-General of the USSR, and their considerable extension. The purpose of this public office is precisely to create an independent guarantee of the rule of law.

As a consequence of these and other measures, of a political character, the situation has been created in the USSR—for the first time since the 1917 revolution (and thus for the first time in the history of its peoples)—that none of its citizens may (in peacetime) be arrested, kept under arrest, tried or sentenced except by the normally operating machinery of justice, even when charged with the gravest offences such as treason or counter-revolution. Moreover, recent issues of the journals of legal and political theory such as *Sovetskoye gosudarstvo i pravo* [*Soviet State and Law*] and *Kommunist* reveal that a lively discussion is proceeding on further measures to protect the personal rights of the Soviet citizen.

The ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL hopes, in its next issue, to publish a communication of considerable importance, on these and kindred subjects, from a Soviet legal authority. In the meantime we print the full text of the statute on the Procurator's Office, specially translated for this occasion.



New Chekhov Story

THE appearance of a Chekhov story hitherto known only by repute is something of a literary occasion, and all the more so in that its subject—who is plainly hoeing much the same row as Dogberry, Bumble and Podsnap—has become proverbial. Prishibeyevism, like Bumbledom and Podsnappery, is not confined to any one time or place. It is with great pleasure that we present this celebrated story, now appearing in English for the first time. (See page 15.)

STATUTE ON CONTROL BY THE PROCURATOR'S OFFICE IN THE USSR

Approved by Edict
of the Presidium of the
Supreme Soviet of the USSR, May 24, 1955

Part One

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Article 1.

IN accordance with Article 113 of the Constitution of the USSR, supreme control over the exact fulfilment of the laws by all ministries, and by the institutions under their administration, and by individual officials and by citizens of the USSR, is vested in the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Article 2.

SUPREME control over the exact fulfilment of the laws has as its aim the strengthening of Socialist legality in the USSR and the protection against any infringements of—

1. The social order and State structure of the USSR, the Socialist system of economy and Socialist property, as laid down by the Constitution of the USSR and by the Constitutions of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics ;
2. The political, labour, housing and other personal and property rights and interests, protected by law, of citizens of the USSR, guaranteed by the Constitution of the USSR and by the constitutions of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics ;
3. The rights and interests, protected by law, of State institutions, enterprises, collective farms, co-operatives and other voluntary organisations.

The Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him have the duty to watch over the correct and uniform application of the laws of the USSR, of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, regardless of any local differences of whatever kind, and despite any local influences whatsoever.

Article 3.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him carry out the duties entrusted to them by—

1. Supervising the strict fulfilment of the laws by all ministries and departments, by the institutions and undertakings subordinate to them, by the executive and administrative organs of local Soviets of working people's deputies, by co-operative and other voluntary organisations ; and equally supervising the strict observance of the laws by officials and citizens ;
2. Bringing to justice persons guilty of committing crimes ;
3. Supervising observance of legality in the work of the organs of inquiry* and preliminary investigation† ;
4. Supervising the legality of and justification for sentences, decisions, judgments and orders of judicial bodies ;
5. Supervising the legality of the application of sentences ;
6. Supervising observance of legality in the treatment of prisoners in places of detention.

* The militia [police].—*Trans.*

† The investigating officials of the Procurator's Office or, in special cases (treason, counter-revolution, etc), of the Committee of State Security.—*Trans.*

Article 4.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him, exercising in the name of the State supervision over the application of the law, have the duty promptly to take steps to eliminate all violations of the laws, from whomsoever these violations may emanate.

Article 5.

THE organs of the Procurator's Office in the USSR constitute a single centralised system, headed by the Procurator-General of the USSR and subordinating Procurators of a lower level to those of a higher level.

Article 6.

ON the basis of Article 117 of the Constitution of the USSR the organs of the Procurator's Office perform their functions independently of any local authority whatsoever, being subordinate only to the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Article 7.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR is responsible to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and is accountable to it ; and is responsible, in the period between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, to which he is accountable.

Article 8.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR, on the basis of and in fulfilment of existing laws, issues orders and instructions binding on all organisations of the Procurator's Office.

Orders and instructions of the Procurator-General of the USSR may be annulled by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in cases when they do not conform to law.

Article 9.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR may make representations to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on questions requiring settlement by way of legislation, or requiring an interpretation of the law as laid down by Section "c" of Article 49 of the Constitution of the USSR.

Part Two

SUPERVISION OVER FULFILMENT OF THE LAWS BY INSTITUTIONS, ORGANISATIONS, OFFICIALS AND CITIZENS OF THE USSR

Article 10.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him, within the limits of their competence, exercise supervision over—

1. The strict conformity of legal acts issued by ministries, departments, and the institutions and undertakings subordinate to them, as well as by the executive and administrative organs of local Soviets of working people's deputies, co-operative and other voluntary organisations, to the Constitution and laws of the USSR, to the Constitutions and laws of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, to the decrees of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics ;

2. Strict observance of the laws by officials and citizens of the USSR.

Article 11.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR, the Procurators of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, the Procurators of Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions, National Areas, Districts and towns, as well as Military and Transport Procurators, within the limits of their competence, may—

1. Require, for verification of their conformity to law, the production of orders, instructions, decisions, regulations, decrees and other acts issued by

ministries, departments, institutions and undertakings subordinate to them ; and by the executive and administrative organs of the local Soviets of working people's deputies, by co-operative and other voluntary organisations and by officials ;

2. Require from those in charge of ministries, departments, institutions, undertakings, executive and administrative organs of local Soviets of working people's deputies, co-operative and other voluntary organisations and from officials, the production of necessary documents and information ;

3. Make on-the-spot investigations into fulfilment of the laws in connection with statements, complaints and other information concerning violation of the law ;

4. Require, in connection with data in their possession concerning violations of the law, that those in charge of ministries, departments, institutions, undertakings, executive and administrative organs of local Soviets of working people's deputies, co-operative and other voluntary organisations and officials shall carry out investigations and inspections of the work of institutions, undertakings and organisations under their administration, and of officials subordinate to them ;

5. Demand from officials and citizens personal explanations in connection with violations of the law.

Article 12.

MINISTRIES, departments, institutions, undertakings, executive and administrative organs of local Soviets of working people's deputies, co-operative and other voluntary organisations, as well as officials, have the duty, on the demand of a Procurator, to supply him with orders, instructions, decisions, regulations, decrees and other documents, and present the necessary information and explanations.

Article 13.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him have the right to demand a review of orders, instructions, decisions, regulations, decrees and other acts which contravene the law, by the body which has issued the act concerned, or by a higher body.

Such a demand for review by a Procurator must then be examined within ten days. The Procurator who has made the demand shall be informed of the decision taken on his demand.

The demand by a Procurator for review of a decision adopted by an authority authorised to take administrative action against any person suspends the enforcement of any administrative penalty until the demand for review has been examined by the appropriate body.

Article 14.

A PROCURATOR has the duty to accept and examine statements and complaints of citizens concerning violations of the law, verify these statements and complaints, within the time-limits established by law, and take steps to restore the rights violated and to defend the lawful interests of citizens.

Article 15.

IN RESPECT of officials or citizens who have violated the law a Procurator, according to the character of the violations, shall either bring the guilty persons to justice or shall take steps to promote administrative or disciplinary action against the offender.

Where necessary, the Procurator shall take steps to secure compensation for material damage caused by violation of the law.

Article 16.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him have the right to make representations to State organs and voluntary organisa-

tions concerning elimination of violations of the law and of the causes facilitating violation of the law.

Any such State organ or voluntary organisation has the duty, within a period not exceeding one month, to examine the representations of the Procurator and take the necessary steps to eliminate violations of the law and the causes facilitating the violation of the law.

Part Three

SUPERVISION OVER OBSERVANCE OF THE LAWS IN THE WORK OF THE ORGANS OF INQUIRY AND PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

Article 17.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him, exercising supervision over the strict observance of the laws in the work of the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation, have the duty to—

1. Bring to justice persons guilty of committing crimes, and to take steps to ensure that not a single crime shall remain undiscovered and not a single criminal shall evade responsibility ;
2. Ensure strictly that not a single citizen is subjected to illegal and unfounded prosecution or to any other unlawful limitation of his rights ;
3. Ensure strictly unswerving observance by the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation of the procedure established by law for the investigation of crimes.

Article 18.

THE Procurator maintains supervision ensuring that no one shall be subjected to arrest otherwise than by decision of a court or with the sanction of a Procurator.

In deciding the question of sanction for arrest, the Procurator has the duty to acquaint himself thoroughly with all the material grounds necessitating arrest, and where necessary personally interrogate the person subject to arrest.

Article 19.

THE Procurator, in exercising supervision over the investigation of crimes, may—

1. Give directions to the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation on the investigation of crimes and the selection, alteration or cancellation of precautionary measures in relation to the accused, and also on search for criminals in hiding ;
2. Demand from the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation, for verification, the criminal dossiers, documents, materials and other information concerning crimes committed ;
3. Participate in the conduct of preliminary investigation and inquiry in criminal cases, and where necessary conduct the investigation of any case in person ;
4. Return criminal dossiers to the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation, with his instructions concerning the conduct of further investigation ;
5. Annul illegal and unjustifiable decisions by the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation ;
6. Dismiss the investigating official or person conducting an inquiry into a case from any further conduct of investigation or inquiry, if this person has permitted a violation of the law in the investigation of a case ;
7. Remove any case from an organ of inquiry and transfer it to an organ of preliminary investigation, and also transfer a case from one organ of preliminary investigation to another, with the aim of ensuring the fullest and most objective investigation of the case ;

8. Entrust to the organs of inquiry the carrying out of particular duties of investigation in cases being conducted by investigators of the Procurator's Office, in particular those concerning detention, temporary detention for questioning, arrest of an accused person, the effecting of a search, the seizure of property, the search for criminals in hiding ;

9. Terminate criminal cases on grounds established by law.

Article 20.

THE directions of a Procurator to the organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation regarding their investigation of criminal cases, given in the manner prescribed by the law of criminal procedure, are binding on these organs.

Article 21.

A PROCURATOR has the duty, within the periods established by law, to examine complaints addressed to him or received by him concerning the actions of organs of inquiry and preliminary investigation, and to inform the complainants of decisions taken regarding their complaints.

Part Four

SUPERVISION OF THE LEGALITY OF AND JUSTIFICATION FOR SENTENCES, DECISIONS, JUDGMENTS AND ORDERS OF JUDICIAL COURTS

Article 22.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him have the duty to supervise the legality of and justification for sentences, decisions, judgments and orders pronounced by judicial bodies.

Article 23.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him—

1. Participate in procedural sessions of the courts ;
2. Participate in examination of criminal and civil cases at court sessions, and give their conclusions on questions arising during the court hearing ;
3. Act as State prosecutors in court at the hearing of criminal cases ;
4. Bring actions in the form of civil litigation, or civil actions in criminal proceedings, and support these actions in court, if this is required for the defence of State or social interests, or of the rights and lawful interests of citizens ;
5. Lodge demands, in the manner established by law, for the review of unlawful and unfounded sentences, decisions, judgments and orders of judicial bodies ;
6. Give conclusions on criminal and civil cases being heard by a higher court, on appeal and on demand for review ;
7. Exercise supervision over the fulfilment of court sentences.

Article 24.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and all the Procurators subordinate to him may, within the limits of their competence, withdraw any civil or criminal case from the courts for verification, in the exercise of their duty of surveillance.

Article 25.

THE right to lodge a demand for review of sentences, decisions, judgments, and orders of the courts which have entered into legal force is vested in—

1. The Procurator-General of the USSR and his deputies, in respect of the sentences, decisions, judgments and orders of any court of the USSR or of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics ;
2. The Procurator-General of a Union Republic and his deputies, in respect of sentences, decisions, judgments and orders of the courts of the Union Republic and of the Autonomous Republics forming part thereof, with the excep-

tion of orders of the Presidium of the Supreme Court of the Union Republic concerned ;

3. The Procurator of an Autonomous Republic, in respect of sentences, decisions and judgments of people's courts of the Autonomous Republic, and judgments of the divisions of the Supreme Court of the Autonomous Republic, sitting as courts of second instance ;

4. The Procurator of a Territory, Region, or Autonomous Region, in respect of sentences, decisions and judgments of people's courts, and of judgments of the divisions of the territorial and regional court, and of the court of the Autonomous Region, as the case may be, sitting as courts of second instance ;

5. The Chief Military Procurator and the Chief Transport Procurator, in respect of sentences and judgments, as the case may be, of any military tribunal or transport court ;

6. The Military Procurator of a military district or fleet, in respect of sentences and judgments of lower military tribunals.

Article 26.

A DEMAND for review of a sentence, decision, judgment or order of a court may be withdrawn by the Procurator who has lodged it or by a higher Procurator before it has been examined by a court.

Article 27.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and his deputies may suspend execution of a sentence, decision, judgment or order of any court of the USSR, Union Republics or Autonomous Republics, review of which they have demanded, pending completion of the review.

The Procurator of a Union Republic may suspend execution of a sentence, decision, judgment or order of any court of the Union Republic concerned or of the Autonomous Republics forming part thereof, review of which he has demanded, pending completion of the review.

Article 28.

THE participation of the Procurator-General of the USSR in plenary sessions of the Supreme Court of the USSR is obligatory.

Article 29.

IN the event of the Procurator-General of the USSR considering a decision of the plenary session of the Supreme Court of the USSR to be contrary to law, he shall make representations on this question to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Article 30.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR may lay before the plenary session of the Supreme Court of the USSR for its consideration proposals on guidance to judicial bodies in questions of judicial practice.

Article 31.

THE Procurators of Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions participate in the examination of criminal and civil cases by the Presidiums of the Supreme Courts of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, territorial and regional courts, and courts of Autonomous Regions.

Part Five

SUPERVISION OF OBSERVANCE OF THE LAW IN PLACES OF DETENTION

Article 32.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him, within the limits of their competence, have the duty to exercise supervision to ensure that in places of detention there shall be held in custody only persons

imprisoned with the sanction of a Procurator or by decision of a court ; and likewise that the regulations, established by law, for the detention of prisoners, are observed.

Responsibility for the observance of Socialist legality in places of detention rests on the organs of the Procurator's Office.

Article 33.

A PROCURATOR has the duty systematically to visit places of detention, to acquaint himself personally with the manner in which they are administered, to suspend the fulfilment of orders and instructions of the administration in places of detention which are contrary to law, to demand their review in the form established by law, and also to take steps to prosecute by criminal or disciplinary procedure persons guilty of violation of law in places of detention.

Article 34.

A PROCURATOR has the duty immediately to liberate from custody any person who has been unlawfully subject to arrest or is unlawfully imprisoned in places of detention.

Article 35.

IN exercising supervision over the legality of the holding of prisoners in places of detention, the Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators subordinate to him, within the limits of their competence, may—

1. With the purpose of verifying the observance of the manner of detention of prisoners as provided by law, visit places of detention at any time, with unhindered access to all premises ;
2. Acquaint themselves with the documents on the basis of which persons have been subjected to detention ;
3. Conduct personal interrogation of the prisoners ;
4. Verify the conformity to law of orders and instructions of the administration in places of detention determining the conditions and régime applying to the prisoners ;
5. Demand personal explanations from representatives of the administration of places of detention regarding violations of the law regarding detention of prisoners.

Article 36.

THE administration of a place of detention shall within a time-limit not exceeding 24 hours send to the Procurator any complaint or statement by a prisoner addressed to him.

A Procurator, upon receiving any complaint or statement from a prisoner, has the duty to examine it within the time limits established by law, to take the necessary steps and to inform the complainant of his decision.

A Procurator has the duty to ensure that complaints and statements by prisoners are immediately forwarded by the administrations of places of detention to the bodies or officials to whom they are addressed.

Article 37.

THE administration of a place of detention shall carry out the requests of a Procurator with regard to observance of the rules of detention of prisoners established by law.

Part Six

STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANS OF THE PROCURATOR'S OFFICE, MANNER OF APPOINTMENT AND SERVICE REGULATIONS FOR THE PROCURATOR'S OFFICE

Article 38.

THE Procurator's Office of the USSR is headed by the Procurator-General of the USSR. The Procurator-General of the USSR in conformity with Article 114

of the Constitution of the USSR, is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for a term of seven years.

Article 39.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR directs the activity of the organs of the Procurator's Office and controls the work of the Procurators subordinate to him.

Article 40.

THE Procurator-General of the USSR has deputies appointed on his recommendation by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Article 41.

WITHIN the Procurator's Office of the USSR there are established various departments and sections, a Chief Military Procurator's Office and a Chief Transport Procurator's Office.

The heads of the departments and sections of the Procurator's Office of the USSR are the senior assistants and assistants of the Procurator-General of the USSR.

In the departments and sections there are departmental and sectional Procurators.

The Chief Military Procurator's Office is headed by the Chief Military Procurator. The Chief Transport Procurator's Office is headed by the Chief Transport Procurator.

Sections may be formed within the Chief Military Procurator's Office and the Chief Transport Procurator's Office.

Article 42.

THE structure of the central apparatus of the Procurator's Office of the USSR shall be subject to approval by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Article 43.

PROCURATOR'S Offices are established in Union Republics, in Autonomous Republics, in Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions and National Areas, in towns coming directly under the authority of Republics, Territories and Regions, and in Districts.

By decision of the Procurator-General of the USSR one Procurator's Office may be established for several administrative districts.

Article 44.

IN the Soviet Army and Navy, Military Procurators' Offices are established in military districts, fleets, formations and garrisons.

Article 45.

ON railways and waterways, Transport Procurators' Offices are established in areas, on railways, river basins and sections.

Article 46.

THE Procurator's Offices of Union Republics are headed by Procurators of the Union Republics. Procurators of Union Republics are appointed by the Procurator-General of the USSR for a term of five years. Procurators of the Union Republics have deputies, senior assistants and assistants.

Within the Procurator's Offices of Union Republics there are established sections, the heads of which are the senior assistants and assistants of the Procurators of the Union Republics.

Article 47.

THE Procurator's Offices of Autonomous Republics are headed by Procurators of the Autonomous Republics. The Procurators of Autonomous Republics are appointed by the Procurator-General of the USSR for a term of five years.

The Procurators of Autonomous Republics have deputies, senior assistants and assistants.

Within the Procurator's Offices of Autonomous Republics there may be established sections, the heads of which are the senior assistants and assistants of the Procurators of the Autonomous Republics.

Article 48.

THE Procurator's Offices of Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions are headed by Procurators of the Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions concerned.

The Procurators of Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions are appointed by the Procurator-General of the USSR for a term of five years.

The Procurators of Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions have deputies, senior assistants and assistants.

Within the Procurator's Offices of Territories and Regions there may be established sections, the heads of which are senior assistants and assistants of the Procurators of Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions.

Article 49.

THE Procurator's Offices of Areas, Districts and towns are headed by Procurators of the Areas, Districts and towns concerned.

The Procurators of Areas, Districts and towns are appointed by the Procurators of the Union Republics, subject to approval of the Procurator-General of the USSR, for a term of five years.

The Procurators of Areas, Districts and towns have deputies and assistants.

Article 50.

ATTACHED to the Procurator-General of the USSR and the Procurators of the Union Republics are investigators for particularly important cases.

In the Procurator's Offices of the Autonomous Republics, Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions there are senior investigators.

In the Procurator's Offices of Areas, Districts and towns there are senior investigators and investigators.

Article 51.

THE structure and staffs of organs of the Procurator's Offices are determined by the Procurator-General of the USSR, within the limits of the approved number of employees and the wages fund.

Article 52.

THE posts of Procurators and investigators are held by persons with a higher legal education.

Persons without a higher legal education may in individual cases be appointed to posts as Procurators and investigators only by permission of the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Persons who have graduated from higher legal educational institutions may be appointed to posts as Procurators and investigators only after a year's probation in the post of investigator of a District (town) Procurator's Office or of assistant to a District (town) Procurator.

Service in the organs of the Procurator's Office may not be combined with work in other institutions, except scientific research and teaching.

Article 53.

PERSONS under twenty-five years of age may not be appointed as Procurators of Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions, Areas, towns or Districts, or as Military or Transport Procurators.

Article 54.

THE procedure for appointment to the posts of Procurators and investigators, and for release from these posts, except for persons whose manner of appoint-

ment is laid down in Articles 40, 46, 47, 48 and 49, is determined by the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Article 55.

REGULATIONS governing the disciplinary responsibility of Procurators and investigators are adopted by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on proposals submitted by the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Article 56.

RANKS are conferred upon the staffs of organs of the Procurator's Office of the USSR according to the posts they hold.

The rank of Actual State Counsellor of Justice is conferred by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The ranks of State Counsellor of Justice, First Class, Second Class and Third Class, are conferred by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on the submission of the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Other ranks are conferred by orders of the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Article 57.

PROCURATORS and investigators on whom ranks have been conferred wear the uniform and the established badges of their rank when performing their official duties.

SCR Library, Exhibition and Lecture Services

The Library is general and scientific, with a holding of over 8,000 Russian books and several thousand English books and translations, and current journals and newspapers.

Library hours, for reference and loan facilities, are 1 p.m. to 7 p.m. on Monday, Wednesday and Friday, and 1 p.m. to 6 p.m. on Tuesday and Thursday. There is a postal loan service on refund of postage. Facilities include borrowing three books at a time for a period of one month. Special loans, for exhibition or research, by arrangement.

The Exhibition Department has an extensive library of photographs, art books, film-strips, slides and other visual aids, available to lecturers, schools and interested bodies. Catalogue on request.

The Lecture Service offers the information and knowledge of SCR specialist members—many of whom have recently visited the USSR—to schools, societies, professional organisations, and so on.

SERGEANT PRISHIBEYEV

Anton Chekhov

SERGEANT PRISHIBEYEV : you are hereby charged that on the third day of this present September you did make use of insulting words and behaviour towards Police Constable Zhigin, Village Elder Alyapov, Sotsky* Yefimov, the witnesses Ivanov and Gavrilov, and six other peasants ; and that you did subject the three first-mentioned of the said persons to insult in the course of their official duties. Do you admit your guilt ?”

Prishibeyev, a wrinkled, craggy-featured NCO, placed his thumbs in line with the seams of his trousers and replied in a throaty, choking voice, articulating each word distinctly, as though issuing a command.

“Your Honour ! Mr. Justice of the Peace ! Sir ! Whereas it is a statutory obligation to reciprocate every circumstance. It is not me that is the guilty one. It is all the others. The whole affair arises out of the corpse of a dead man, the kingdom of heaven be his. As I was proceeding on a stroll with Anfisa my lawful spouse, in a decent and orderly manner, I observed a concourse of people, persons of all sorts and descriptions, assembled on the bank of the river. ‘What authority have all these populace got to be gathered together ?’ I asked myself. ‘What’s up now ? There’s no law to the effect that populace can swarm about in herds.’ I thereupon shouted out : ‘Move along there.’ I commenced to shove these persons on, to get them dispersed to their homes. I instructed the sotsky to hustle them off by the scruff of their necks.”

“One moment. You are not a policeman, or a headman, surely, are you ? What business was it of yours to make the people disperse ?”

“Hear, hear !” “None of his business !” “That’s right !” Voices rang out from different parts of the courtroom. “He never gives us a moment’s peace, Your Honour.” “We’ve been putting up with him for fifteen years.” “It’s been like this ever since he came out of the army.” “You can only escape from him by leaving the village.”

“That is true, Your Honour,” said the village headman. “We have all got complaints against him. Everyone in the commune. It is not possible to live in the same place as him. If we have a procession with ikons, or a wedding, or anything else, whatever it is he comes up shouting and roaring to establish order. He boxes the children’s ears, and he spies on the women to see they don’t do anything they shouldn’t, as though he was the father-in-law of the whole lot. The other day he went from one cottage to another ordering us all not to sing or to light fires. He said there wasn’t any law saying we might sing.”

“One moment, please. You will have an opportunity to make your statement later on,” interrupted the Justice of the Peace. “Let Prishibeyev go on with his own statement now. Continue, Prishibeyev.”

“Sir !” rasped the NCO. “Your Honour pleases to say it was none of my business to make the crowd disperse. Very well then. And what if there was to be some disorder ? Have subjects got to be condoned in all sorts of shocking goings-on ? Is it in the statute book for subjects to be let do as they please ? I can’t be party to that, Your Honour. If I wasn’t to make them disperse, who would ? Tell me that. No one in the village except me don’t know the meaning of order. If I may say so, Your Honour, I understand the procedure for dealing with the lower classes. I know all about them, Your Honour. I am not

* The *sotsky* was a peasant appointed to carry official forms and documents from one authority to another and to the landowners and peasants of a given area.

a muzhik.* Non-commissioned officer. Quartermaster-sergeant, retired. Served at Warsaw. At Headquarters, Sir. And after that, if I may say so, when I got my ticket, I went in the fire service, Sir. And then, due to the unsatisfactory condition of my health, I quit the fire service. I was a porter at a classical preparatory school for boys. For two years. So I know all about maintaining order, Sir. A muzhik is a low, common fellow. Ignorant. It's his duty to obey me. Good for his character. You take this here affair, for instance. There was I, making the populace disperse. And there was a drowned corpse of a dead man on the bank, laying on the sand. What call had it got to be laying there, I'd like to know? Is that what you'd call good order? So what was the copper doing? 'Why don't you inform the authorities?' I asks him. The said found drowned might have deceased by a-drowning itself. Or it might be there was a whiff of Siberia about this here affair, like. Might have been a case of criminal murder. But Constable Zhigin don't pay attention. He stands there puffing away at his cigarette. 'What's up with you?' he says. 'You in charge, or what? What's it got to do with you, anyway? We know what to do without any help from you, don't we?' So I says 'No,' I says. 'Anyone can see you don't know what to do, you oaf, seeing as you're standing there not taking any notice.' 'Reported it to the district police chief yesterday,' says he. 'Why him?' says I. 'Which regulation says that's the correct procedure? Tell me that. You ought to know cases of drowning and hanging and suchlike doings aren't a matter for the district police chief. This is a serious crime, this is. A criminal matter. A civil matter. That's what it is,' I says. 'Now then,' I says to him, 'you send off a runner to His Honour the Examining Magistrate straight away. And to the court, too. And,' I says, 'before you do anything else, you want to draw up a formal statement to be forwarded to His Honour the Justice of the Peace.' But that there copper he just listens and laughs his head off. So do the muzhiks. They all laughed, Your Honour. Swear to that, I will. On my affidavit. That one over there laughed. And that one there. And Zhigin too. 'What's all this?' says I. 'Think it's funny, do you?' And then the policeman he says: 'This sort of thing,' he says, 'isn't for the JP.' Well, that properly made me see red. You there: policeman: you did utter them words I mentioned, didn't you?" demanded the NCO, turning to Constable Zhigin.

"I did. Yes."

"Everyone heard you utter them exact words, in front of all them low, common people. 'This sort of thing isn't for the JP.' Everyone heard you say it, didn't they? I got mad, Your Honour. I was fair flabbergasted, what's more. 'Just you repeat that,' I said. 'You say that again, you so-and-so. Just you repeat what you said just now.' And he did. Uttered the same exact words all over again. So I went for him. 'How dare you talk about His Honour like that?' I said. 'A police officer going against the authorities, heh? Do you realise,' I says, 'His Honour could hand you over to the provincial gendarmerie, if he so desired, for such untrustworthy conduct? Do you realise how far His Honour could get you transported to for using of such political language?' And then the Elder spoke up. He said: 'The JP can't deal with things outside his jurisdiction. It's only petty matters he deals with.' That's what he said, I tell you. Everyone heard him. 'What's this?' I says. 'Belittle the authorities, would you? Well,' says I, 'you're not going to play none of your little games with me, you're not. You've put your foot in it good and proper this time, friend,' says I. When I was in Warsaw, and when I was porter at the classical preparatory school for boys, if I was to hear any improper statements of that sort, I used to take a look out into the street to see if I could spot a gendarme. 'Come over here, officer,' I used to say. Used to report the

* Peasant.

whole affair, I did. Only who can you report to in these here rural areas ? Well, I was wild, I can tell you. Beside myself with indignation. I got very agitated seeing these populace forgetting themselves like that. Puffed up with insubordination. So I patted him one. Not hard. Course not. I give him what for, that's all. Bit of a tap. So's he wouldn't go saying such things about Your Honour again, like. And then the policemen went and backed him up. So I give him one, too. Then it got going. I got fair worked up. Your Honour. That's the way things are. Can't maintain order without a bit of bashing. If you was to let some oaf get away without a bashing you wouldn't have a clear conscience. Specially when he deserves it. When it's a case of conduct prejudicial to good order——"

"One moment. There are those whose job it is to deal with breaches of the peace. That purpose is served by the policeman, the headman and the sotsky."

"The policeman can't be everywhere at once. And he hasn't got special knowledge like what I have."

"You admit, however, that it was in fact no concern of yours, do you ?"

"What ? Not my business, isn't it ? Well ! I'm fair taken aback. Populace going on in shocking fashion, and it mustn't be no concern of mine ? Expect me to pat 'em on the head, or what ? And now they've been and gone and complained about me instructing them not to sing songs. What use are songs, I'd like to know ? They sing instead of getting on with their work. And another thing. They've taken to sitting round fires in the evenings. Instead of going to bed, they sit about talking and laughing. Mind you, I always keep note."

"Keep note ? Of what ?"

"Who it is sits round fires."

Prishibeyev pulled a dirty scrap of paper out of his pocket, put on his spectacles, and read aloud.

"Inasmuch as the said peasants sitting round fires are hereinafter as follows. Ivan Prokhorov. Savva Nikiforov. Pyotr Petrov. Soldier's wife Shustrova, status widow, illicitly cohabiting in profligation with Semyon Kislov. Ignat Sverchok practises sorcery. His wife Mavra is a witch : milks other people's cows by night. And——"

"That will do," interrupted the judge. He began to examine the witnesses.

Sergeant Prishibeyev pushed his glasses up on his forehead and gazed dumb-founded at this JP who did not seem to be on his side. His bulging eyes glistened. His nose turned crimson. He stared first at the magistrate and then at the witnesses. He could not make out why the magistrate was growing so indignant, or why subdued mutterings and smothered laughter kept coming from every corner of the courtroom.

The sentence of one month's imprisonment baffled him completely.

"What for ?" he demanded, throwing out his hands in bewilderment. "What regulation lays that down ?"

He saw clearly that the world had changed. It was no longer fit to live in. Gloomy and despondent thoughts engulfed him. But as he left the courtroom he saw the muzhiks gathered together talking to each other. Force of habit was too much for him. He placed his thumbs in line with the seams of his trousers, and bawled out in his fierce rasping voice.

"Populace, dis-perse ! No crowds ! Go back home !"

1885.

Translated by Brian Pearce and Stella Jackson.

SOVIET TECHNICAL EDUCATION

J. G. Crowther

THE Soviet achievements of producing the first large-scale thermonuclear reaction and the first atomic power-station supplying electricity to the local grid, and the construction of the giant synchro-phasotron with a 36,000-ton magnet, for atomic research, have proved that Soviet science and technology have not only caught up with science and technology in capitalist countries, but in certain directions are in advance of them. Everyone not blinded by prejudice knows that these concrete achievements imply the existence of an immense and efficient system of scientific and technical education. Consequently the wiser, though not necessarily friendlier, elements in both American and British official circles have begun to take a serious interest in the Soviet system of scientific and technical education. Under the auspices of the United States National Research Council, Mr. Nicholas de Witt has compiled a large monograph on *Soviet Professional Manpower, its Education, Training and Supply* (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1955). This volume runs to 400 closely printed pages. The method employed by the author resembles that of an intelligence organisation which pieces together information learned about an enemy country, and derives conclusions of varying weight from incomplete data by the application of the technique of statistics. Even with this method, the author has arrived at the conclusion that Soviet data on educational and manpower statistics "mirror the real situation to a great extent". In other words, Soviet official reports on scientific and technical education mean what they say. The British Government in its recent White Paper on *Technical Education* (HMSO, February 1956) has adopted a similar attitude, and has given various figures on the number of engineers being trained in the Soviet Union which are derived from Mr. de Witt's work. In the White Paper it is stated that in 1955, "with a population of 214,000,000, the USSR claims to be producing per annum 60,000 professional engineers—280 per million of the population". But in the USA in 1954, with a population of 162,000,000, only 22,000 engineering graduates were produced, or 136 per million of the population. As for Britain in 1954, 2,800 graduated in engineering and the applied sciences, or about fifty-seven per million of the population.

The White Paper states further that in the USSR engineers who have secured a qualification of the middle grade, lower than a university degree, are produced at the rate of 70,000 per annum, or about 326 per million of the population. Comparable figures for the USA are not available, but it is stated that not enough engineers of the middle grade are produced to provide the "three to five" engineering aides who should, on the average, assist each engineer with university or equivalent qualification.

For Britain, the Higher National Certificate, or equivalent qualification, is regarded as the qualification of the middle grade. Of these 8,100 are awarded yearly or 164 per million of the population.

As the White Paper says, in the USSR "the number of engineers turned out is well ahead of any other country, both in absolute figures and per head of the population".

The disparity in numbers of engineers and scientists produced by the USSR and Britain has been used by the Government as its chief argument for expanding the British system of technical education. It is a tribute to the reality of the immense Soviet achievement in this direction. Nevertheless, bad though the situation is in Britain as revealed by the comparative figures, it is necessary to accept their implications with some caution. At least, Soviet experts do so.

The eminent Soviet biologist Academician A. Kursanov, in his description of his recent visit to British scientific research institutes, mentioned that "their permanent staffs are numerically small, but carefully selected". He noted that nearly all British biological institutions combined research with teaching, that senior students acted as valuable assistants in research, and that this gave the opportunity for professors and students to get to know each other, for this happens best not during tuition, but when working together on practical research. "It facilitates the selection of the most gifted students for scientific posts."

The best British scientific institutions, though relatively small in size, are in fact of very high quality. This is the reason why the British have occasionally done better than the impartial observer would have expected. This was exemplified by the British development of radar during the second world war. From the technical point of view, one might have expected that the German electrical industry would have been particularly successful in this field, but the event showed that a relatively few good British physicists, backed by a smaller electrical industry, were able to beat it. Another striking example is the revival of atomic energy development in Britain since 1946. At the end of the second world war there was no atomic energy establishment in Britain at all. The United States had suddenly excluded Britain from her fund of atomic information. Yet at the International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy at Geneva in August 1955, only nine years later, Britain made a good showing.

But, in view of the great disparity both in relative and absolute numbers of scientists and engineers, such spurts will become rarer and may perhaps never occur again.

At the beginning of 1956, the colleges and universities of the USSR had 1,865,000 students, which is more than all those in Britain, France, Italy and other western European countries put together. More than 250,000 specialists in all branches of higher education graduated in 1955. The total number graduated during the fifth five-year plan exceeded 1,120,000, which was 72 per cent more than in the fourth five-year plan.

The programme for the sixth five-year plan (1956-60) envisages a fifty per cent increase over the fifth five-year plan in the number of students graduating from colleges and universities and from technical institutions of the middle grade. In particular, the number of specialists for the heavy, building and transport industries and agriculture is to be increased by approximately 100 per cent. Thus the Soviet lead in relative and absolute numbers of scientists and technologists will increase rapidly in the immediate future. This immense number of technicians will enable the USSR not only to increase still more the rate of its own scientific and technical development, but will also provide still larger numbers of technical specialists for assisting in the development and training of the less-developed countries. The USSR will be the only country with sufficient technical personnel to give this kind of aid on a large scale to the huge nations of Asia, and also to countries in Africa and South America. The recent announcement of the establishment of a Joint Nuclear Research Institute in Moscow on behalf of eleven countries is an illustration of this development. Several of the Soviet Union's great atomic research institutes, including the Electro-Physical Laboratory of the Academy of Sciences, containing the 36,000-ton synchro-phasotron, are being turned over to the new Joint Institute.

In his report to the Twentieth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, N. S. Khrushchov has said that "while we can be fully satisfied with the quantitative aspect of the matter, serious attention must be paid to the quality of the training of specialists". He complained that the higher educational establishments were "divorced from practical work, from production, and lag behind the present-day level of technology". They did not, as yet, give

the younger engineer sufficient knowledge of the concrete economics and organisation of production. The practical training of the students had to be fundamentally improved. The work of educational establishments required reorganisation so that while going through their course of studies the students were in touch with the realities of production in factories and on farms.

Khrushchov criticised the present concentration of higher educational establishments in the large cities, and said that the time had come for the revision of their geographical distribution in closer relation to the new centres of production. He quoted the case of research in oceanography, in which three of the main institutes are situated in Moscow : the Marine Hydro-Physical Institute, the USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of Oceanography, and the Institute of Oceanography of the Hydro-Meteorological Service. " Isn't that a bit too much for the Moscow Sea and the Vorobyovi Hills ? " he asked.

One of the ways of providing higher education for personnel in distant and out-of-the-way places is by correspondence colleges. During the fifth five-year plan these, together with advanced evening classes, were greatly extended. More than 260,000 higher specialists graduated by these means during the fifth five-year plan, an increase of 170 per cent over the number graduating in this way during the fourth.

Enrolment in technical institutions in the Urals, Siberia, the Far East and Kazakhstan is especially to be increased, in order to meet the growing requirements of these areas.

Such then are some of the facts with regard to the quantity and quality of scientists and engineers in the Soviet Union at the beginning of 1956. Their absolute magnitude is, however, only one of their important aspects. Even more significant are the conditions under which they have been produced, and their rate of growth.

When the Soviet Union launched her first five-year plan, the enrolment of industrial technical students for the session 1928-29 was :

Higher technical schools	...	12,690
Middle technical schools		
(day classes)	...	3,250
(evening classes)	...	460
		<hr/>
		16,400

In 1955, 280,000 graduates from the Soviet higher and middle technical schools entered the national economy. Thus, by the end of the fifth five-year plan, more than seventeen times as many were graduating in industrial subjects as at the beginning of the first. By the end of 1955 there were more than 5,000,000 specialists in the Soviet Union, whereas in Russia in 1913 there were only 200,000. Like many of the perspectives opened by the first five-year plan, the proposed rapid increase in technical personnel was regarded with incredulity outside the Soviet Union, and also by not a few within it, at the time. How was this country, the heir of technically undeveloped Tsarist Russia, damaged by years of counter-revolution and more years of external hostility, to undertake a rapid technical expansion ? The education of the youth had been interrupted, colleges had been destroyed, many of the older scientists and engineers had died, and some had fled.

The successful realisation of the plans for increased numbers of technical personnel is one of the aspects which is more significant than the large actual number which now exists. It is a proof and demonstration of what is possible, and an inspiration to others, especially the technically backward countries.

Lenin had pointed out long before the Revolution that in order to establish communism the country must be industrialised, and one of his earliest acts

after the Revolution was to call for a programme of electrification and technical development, the Goelro Plan. Ten years after the Revolution it became clear that unless yet more comprehensive plans of industrialisation and technical development were carried out immediately the future of the Revolution itself would be in doubt. So the projects of the first five-year plan, which seem so modest now, but which appeared almost fantastically impossible then, were undertaken with heroic determination. In 1929 every engineer in the Soviet Union was required to undertake a proportion of technical teaching in addition to his normal technical work. Engineers from factories had to devote a percentage of their time to teaching, irrespective of whether they had had any previous experience as teachers. Administrators with technical qualifications were required to deliver lectures. In the lecture rooms of colleges, works managers and civil servants could be found lecturing beside the usual college staffs. In those intense days the technical colleges were organised as mono-technics, giving short courses directed entirely to one particular speciality. This was the quickest way of producing a large number of new technicians who would be of immediate, if limited, use in the new constructions and industry.

As the years went by, and more and more technicians were produced, the courses of instruction were made longer and wider, so that the technical student received a broader training, both in his speciality and in his general education. Thus the character of the institutions of technical education has evolved in accordance with the needs and conditions.

While the Soviet Union had to adopt special measures at the beginning of the first five-year plan in order to extend technical education among the masses quickly, it would be a mistake to suppose that the wider principles of scientific and technical education were not appreciated. Higher technical education of the finest quality had in fact existed in Russia for a long time. In 1955, the Bauman Higher Technical School in Moscow celebrated the 125th anniversary of its foundation. It had gradually evolved five-year courses of training in machine construction and chemical engineering which received world recognition. At the Paris Exhibition of 1900 it had received the Grand Prix for its methods of training engineers. The late S. I. Vavilov, who became president of the USSR Academy of Sciences, began his scientific career as a professor of physics there. Among the earlier professors were the physicist A. G. Stoletov and the aerodynamical engineer N. E. Zhukovsky. The noted aeroplane designer A. N. Tupolev was one of his pupils. At this institution, and a few others, there was a fine tradition of engineering education to draw upon. The problems and methods were known: the problem was to multiply the number of sufficiently adequate technicians quickly.

In fact, the Soviet Union depended little on ideas of technical education collected from abroad. In 1920-30, it sent specialists to visit the leading technical institutions in the most technologically advanced countries, the United States, Germany, Britain and France. On the whole, the most valuable result of these inquiries was not the introduction of methods novel to the Soviet Union, but the confirmation, in the light of what had been seen abroad, of the conclusions that they had already derived from previous Soviet and Russian experience in technical education.

As the resources of the Soviet Union in specialists and materials have increased, the system of technical education has been strengthened in more and more directions. Basic to the extension of higher education is the extension of primary and secondary education. It has been laid down in the sixth five-year plan that all young people shall receive a secondary education. This is to consist in general of a ten-year course, and also of specialised courses. It will be established both in urban and in rural districts. It will be polytechnical in character, the aim being to acquaint pupils with major branches of modern industry and agriculture. Theoretical studies are to be closely related to prac-

tical work. Schools are to be given more equipment, and relations between them and local factories and farms are to be developed. The original idea of polytechnicalisation may be found in Marx's statement that the factory system "is the embryonic form of the educational system of days to come, when, for all children above a certain age, productive labour will be combined, not only as a means of increasing social production, but also as the 'only method of bringing about a many-sided development'" (*Capital*, I, p. 489).

The polytechnicalisation of secondary schools is being assisted by promoting relations between factories and schools. In Moscow, about 1,000 factories have adopted schools, and are providing them with extra tools and equipment. About 1,000 engineers from these factories have undertaken to do some teaching in these schools. One of the aims is to relate the teaching of mathematics, physics and chemistry to problems illustrated from the engineer's own experience of contemporary industry. Similarly, the teaching of biology is being related more closely to agriculture, and more stress is being laid on the cultivation of school plots and gardens, and the supply of suitable equipment for the purpose.

Together with these trends of universal secondary education and polytechnicalisation, secondary education has now been made free. Tuition fees in the senior classes of secondary schools, specialised secondary schools and higher educational establishments have been abolished.

The adoption of these measures has greatly increased the orientation of the youth to scientific and technical subjects. These are brought to their notice, often by working engineers, while they are still under school discipline. They are not left to discover the fascinations of the technical life several years after they have left school, when they may have lost the habit of study and, in many cases, the power to begin to learn advanced science and higher technology in an orderly way.

In 1954, 37.2 per cent of all college students in the USSR were enrolled in technical schools. The different kinds of technical school have been broadly classified by A. F. Shavin (*Yearbook of Education*) as follows.

Polytechnical and industrial engineering schools. These train engineers for machine construction, railway maintenance, motor transport, mineral prospecting, the technology of the petroleum industry, chemical technology, and so on.

Heavy and light electrical engineering schools. These train engineers in the manufacture and construction of electric power plant, the electrification of factories and the construction of turbines and boilers. Under light electrical engineering these schools deal with the making of electrical equipment and instruments, remote control and electric meters, automatic plants, electronic equipment, and so on.

Mechanical engineering, shipbuilding and aeronautical engineering schools. In these, engineers are trained for the automobile and tractor industries, the making of internal combustion engines, the construction of agricultural and transport machinery, hot and cold metal working, foundry technology, the construction of lathes and other machine tools and cranes, the technique of welding, shipbuilding and repairing, and the construction of printing machinery.

Technical high schools for geology, petroleum engineering, peat, ore reduction and metallurgical industries. These schools deal with the training of engineers for the raw-material industries, geologists, mining engineers, specialists in various branches of the production side of the coal and oil industries, the construction of mines, and the treatment of metals and materials under high pressure.

Chemical engineering schools. These train engineers for the various branches of chemical industry, the making of heavy chemical equipment and machinery,

and technologists for controlling the numerous different processes, such as pulp and paper making, and so on.

High schools for the food industry. These train specialists in the technology of bread-making, the production of confectionery, the storage and processing of grain, the technology of the various methods of food processing, and the refrigeration and preservation of food. There are schools for training specialists in the technology of fish-smoking, commercial fishing, and the various methods of canning.

Higher schools for light industry. These train specialists in the technology of fibres, skin and fur dressing, garment and leather industries, and so on.

Civil engineering schools. These deal with the training of engineers in the construction of industrial and domestic structures, dams, canals and hydro-electric plants, cities, roads, mining plants, and so on.

Transport and communication schools. These train engineers in the various branches of railway engineering, tunnel and bridge construction, the repair of rolling stock, the maintenance of permanent way and the electrification of railways, and for marine and river transport, ship repair and port maintenance, and train specialists in telegraph and telephone construction, radio communication, broadcasting, and so on.*

The numbers of middle technical school graduates are planned so as to produce two to four for each university or college graduate in the same speciality.

The general trend in Soviet technical education at present is to widen its basis, and insist on students acquiring a wider general knowledge of scientific progress. To assist this development the traditional technical courses are being carefully examined in order to remove all out-of-date material, and make room for the new knowledge. Nevertheless, parallel with this general development, when necessary, new short-course technical trade schools are being established in areas where there is a serious shortage of engineers with particular skills, especially in Siberia and the far east. For instance, ten such schools have recently been opened in Vladivostok, Uralsk and Tambov. They give students who have completed their secondary school course one or two years' training in a particular trade. Altogether there were 250 such schools in the Soviet Union at the beginning of 1955, with an enrolment of 58,000 youths and girls. During the year 200 more schools of this character were opened, covering 150 different trades.

The Soviet policy in technical education is flexible. The kind of school and the character of the courses are designed to meet the country's needs. Some of these needs are of a short-term, pressing nature, and must be met by special measures; other needs are long-term, and for these training must be based on the greatest possible width and depth. All students in the higher technical schools have practical experience in industry during their course of instruction. Great emphasis is laid on the contact between science and production, or the unity of theory and practice.† Particular factories and mills, railways, constructions, and so on, are chosen for the practical training of students. Care is taken to see that their technological standards are high. In these enterprises the students are called upon to perform on their own responsibility the functions corresponding to their specific knowledge and training. Their practical work is supervised by professors and lecturers, and the best specialists on the factory staffs. The chief engineers of the enterprises are personally responsible for the organisation of the practical work of students in the various factories and constructions and at the machine and tractor stations serving the State farms.

* See also *State Labour Reserves*, SOVIET EDUCATION INFORMATION BULLETIN, Vol. III, No. 2 (April 1956).

† See also *Scientists' Salaries*, SOVIET SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING INFORMATION BULLETIN, Vol. III, No. 2 (July 1956).

The undergraduate of a higher technical school is expected to prepare during his course three or four annual projects and three theses. He prepares a final project for his graduation examination. This is conducted by a State examination commission appointed by the Ministry of Higher Education, consisting of eminent engineers and specialists. If the commission is satisfied with the student and the project, he is awarded an engineer's diploma.

While the higher technical schools are conducted by the Ministry of Higher Education, the middle technical schools training technicians are conducted by the ministry appropriate to the particular industry. The ministry for a particular industry has the best general knowledge of the personnel in that industry, and can select the most appropriate instructors for the middle technical schools. The ministry provides workshop equipment of the kind used in its industry, and is in the best position to relate the technical training given in the school to the process of its industry, thus bringing education and practice into the closest relation.

Technical students may or may not be engaged in industry while they are studying. Those who take evening classes are generally expected to attend on four evenings a week.

Much attention has been given to the development of correspondence courses. They are carefully organised under the supervision of professors in the technical high schools and institutes. The correspondence students must sit for an annual examination, and submit projects for graduation, in the same manner as students in the ordinary technical institutions.

A worker who takes a course of evening classes or a correspondence course is entitled to an extra paid holiday from work in order to take his examination and submit to his viva on his graduation project.

Undergraduate students receive textbooks and dormitory accommodation free, and a stipend, the amount of which depends on their progress in their studies.

The courses in the higher technical schools take from five to five and a half years. After the student has graduated he is given an appointment in an appropriate line. Evening class and correspondence course students are usually promoted after graduation in the enterprises where they are employed. If they desire, they may be transferred to a higher position in another enterprise.

Students who have graduated successfully in day courses receive a paid holiday of one month after their graduation, before they take up their first appointment. The funds are provided by the enterprise in which they are to begin work.

One of the most striking features of the immense expansion of scientific and technical education in the Soviet Union is its effect on the status of women. The production of the very large number of persons with higher technical education has been achieved only by drawing fully upon the reservoir of talent among Soviet women. In fact today more than fifty per cent of the persons graduating with higher qualifications are women. About three-quarters of the medical doctors in the Soviet Union are women, and about one-quarter of the graduate engineers are women. Nothing approaching this exists in capitalist countries. In the United States, for example, de Witt states that the number of women graduating in engineering, agriculture and medicine is virtually insignificant.

The large number of women holding high qualifications and positions in engineering, medicine and agriculture has had a profound effect on the general status of women in the Soviet Union. As long as women do not actually hold responsible professional jobs, formal laws guaranteeing the social equality of women do not have much effect. But when women are actually carrying out a large part of the responsible professional work of the country, in such fields as engineering, their social equality becomes a real thing. It is for this reason

that the status of women is altogether higher and more satisfactory than in any of the capitalist countries. Nor does the influence of the large amount of engineering work done in the Soviet Union by women end only in the question of social equality, and all that that means for happiness and the full expression of life. Most of these Soviet professional women—engineers, doctors and agriculturists—are also wives and mothers. A mother who is also a responsible engineer is, from the point of view of western Europe and North America, a virtually new social type. Such mothers combine both the professional and the domestic virtues. Further, they can interest their children in science and technology in a unique way. Very large numbers of Soviet children no longer have to wait until they begin to go to school to learn about science and technology : they take them in almost with their mothers' milk. Their mothers can arouse their interest and give them informed and expert guidance in science and technology from an early age.

As there are now large numbers of Soviet married women who are also engineers, there is nothing odd in this situation. It is a perfectly normal situation. Consequently, there is a complete absence of the kind of psychological tension or peculiarity common among the occasional married women in the United States or Britain who do achieve success in science or engineering.

During the last twenty-six years, the industrial output of the Soviet Union has increased by twenty times, whereas in the same period the industrial output of the whole capitalist world has only doubled. The Soviet development of scientific and technical education will ensure that a similar disparity in these two rates of development will continue in the future. With its wealth of technical personnel, the Soviet Union is planning for immense developments in many directions.

N. S. Khrushchov in his report to the Twentieth Party Congress stated that the production of coal had increased from 261,000,000 tons in 1950 to 391,000,000 tons in 1955. According to the sixth five-year plan, the output of coal in 1960 will be 593,000,000 tons. For steel the respective figures are 27,000,000 tons in 1950, 45,000,000 in 1955, 68,300,000 in 1960. Thus by 1960 the Soviet Union will be approaching equality with the United States in the production of these basic materials.

According to the sixth five-year plan there are to be large-scale developments in the automatisisation of industry, which requires a large and varied technical staff but fewer unskilled workers. Among installations specifically cited for automation are power systems and oil fields, open-hearth furnaces for producing steel, mills for the rolling of steel bars and sections, apparatus for extracting the by-products of coke production, and blast furnaces. Forty bar and pipe rolling mills are to be automatised. All-round automation is to be introduced in plants for concentrating minerals.*

The furnaces in the copper industry are to be automatised, as are many of the processes of non-ferrous metallurgy, such as crusting and pulverising, the separation of ores by flotation, etc.

Within two or three years the main hydro-electric power stations in the Soviet Union are to go over to telecontrol, the control of operations from a distant control centre. All heat power stations are to be automatised during the period of the plan.

In the electrical industry, the assembly of motors and the production of cables is to be automatised.

In the chemical industry the production of sulphuric acid, nitric acid, soda and other products is to be automatised.

* See also *Electronic Computers*, SOVIET SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING INFORMATION BULLETIN, Vol. III, No. 2 (July 1956).

The number of automatic looms in the textile industry is to be increased to sixty per cent of the total.

At least 600 automatic lines are to be established in the fish-processing industry. Four hundred automatic and semi-automatic lines are to be set up in the bakery and confectionery industry. Four hundred production lines are to be set up in the meat-packing industry, and 1,500 in the butter-making industry.

Finally, a long-term plan is to be drawn up for the introduction of automation into the production processes in all industries, so that work for this purpose can be conducted in a planned way and industrial enterprises can be supplied with the instruments and equipment which are required for automation.

The great fund of trained technical personnel in the Soviet Union, and the achievements of the past generation, are a guarantee that these plans will be successfully carried out.

Second International Industrial and Labour Film Festival

THE Second International Industrial and Labour Film Festival is to be held in Belgium in December 1956.

It is being organised by the Belgian Ministry of Labour and National Insurance (Commissariat General for the Promotion of Labour) with the collaboration of other ministries and the assistance of industrial and workers' associations.

This will be a sequel to the First International Industrial Film Festival, which aroused such lively interest when it was held in Belgium in 1953.

The purpose of the Second International Industrial and Labour Film Festival is to compare, study and make known cinematographic achievements of practical interest to industrial research, vocational training, instruction, industrial propaganda, technical information, rationalisation and the analysis of human labour problems.

To be eligible for showing, films (which may come from any country) must have been made since December 31, 1952.

Full details and regulations may be obtained from La Cinémathèque de Belgique, 23 rue Ravenstein, Brussels.

TOLSTOY AND THE CREATIVE PROCESS

Academician N. K. Gudzy

THROUGHOUT his life Tolstoy never ceased, as writer and as thinker, in his arduous quest for the truth as he saw it. He was one of the category of writers to whom ethics and aesthetics are inextricably intertwined, and he regarded artistic creation as primarily a means of expressing his world outlook.

Tolstoy's essential demands on art and the artist were that the work should embody sound principles in perfect artistic form, and that the author should above all be sincere and truthful in reflecting life. He held that the more gifted a writer was, the greater his responsibility to the public for everything he wrote, and that the author's duty was to write only about what he held dear, what he believed in and felt compelled to express.

These demands were the outcome of Tolstoy's personal experience, and he had tested them in his work. What impelled him to write was no calm, objective contemplation of life, but a passionate interest in all its possible forms and trends and the extent to which it coincided with his moral and social consciousness. He spent a great deal of time and labour on a novel about the times of Peter the Great, but after preparing hundreds of pages of remarkable rough drafts he gave it up because the subject had ceased to attract him and because he did not like Peter the Great. His diaries are full of complaints that he could not carry on with something or other on which he was working because it no longer pleased or satisfied him.

His work on *War and Peace*, *Anna Karenina* and *Resurrection* was accompanied by a sharp sense of discontent. He had to recapture the temporarily lost attraction of the subject, to feel the sincerity and truthfulness of his writing for himself, before he could resume the work with renewed vigour and inspiration.

In 1877 he said to his wife: "For a work to be successful, one has to feel a bond with its main basic idea. Thus, in *Anna Karenina* I love the idea of the family; in *War and Peace* I love the idea of the people in the war of 1812; and now it is clear to me that in my new work I shall love the idea of the Russian people as an absorbing power." The plan for this new work, in which he wished to show the moral vigour of the Russian peasant who transplants himself to Siberia or to the Samara steppes, was never realised, as happened with many other planned works of his.

When an idea did receive literary expression, Tolstoy performed vast labours to complete it, with sudden breaks, long intervals, painful disappointments with what he had written, and fresh spells of inspiration which drove the work on. Much of what he planned, and even of what particularly appealed to him, he did not even begin to put down on paper. In his diaries there appear, sometimes at intervals of several years, entries on subjects and themes on which he never set to work.

In the process of gradual artistic fulfilment, many of his original schemes grew in scope and came to include important new themes, while the original subject at the same time acquired fresh artistic and psychological depth. This happened primarily because he could not solve the problem—usually a purely psychological one—on which he had at first concentrated, in isolation from the complex fabric of social, historical and ideological situations, or from the current events of the times.

It is well known that before writing *War and Peace* Tolstoy had been working on a novel, *The Decembrists*, the action of which was to take place in 1856,

on the hero's return from his exile in Siberia. But Tolstoy abandoned the novel right at the outset, because he had found it necessary to describe what had shaped his hero's destiny and had therefore turned first to 1825, when his hero was a mature family man, and then to 1812, the time of his hero's youth, which coincided with "Russia's days of glory", the "smell and sound" of which were still to be sensed in the sixties when Tolstoy was writing. The hero's personality, however, soon got pushed into the background, and the stage was taken by 1812 itself and all its people, the young, the old, the men, the women. Then, because "modesty" would not permit him to write about the Russian triumph over Napoleon's army "without describing our failures and our shame", the beginning of the novel was put back to 1805, the beginning of relations between Russia and Bonaparte's France.

As the scheme matured and work on the novel progressed, the originally planned characters underwent radical alterations, and the mainly family theme developed against a background of historical events linked with the Napoleonic wars and with the historical personages, both Russian and foreign, taking part in them. The philosophical outlook of the author of *War and Peace* was influenced by the concepts of history which were developing both in the West and in Russia when the novel was being written, or shortly before.

Besides an apologia of the Russian people, the novel contains sharp satire on the morally shallow and selfish aristocratic circles in Russian society, who hampered the struggle against Napoleon and who formed the older generation of those who brought Russia to the Sebastopol disaster. The novel emerged full of strong moral and social tendencies and pronouncing the author's judgment both on Russia's past and on his own times.

Tolstoy began work on the novel in 1863. In 1865-6 the first two parts appeared in *Russky Vestnik* under the title *The Year 1805*. These parts, which ended with a description of the battle of Schöngraben, later underwent much alteration before inclusion in *War and Peace*. In 1867 Tolstoy finished the first version, which he intended to call *All's Well that Ends Well*. In this version both Andrei Bolkonsky and Petia Rostov remained alive, and the sequel described two weddings, Pierre Bezukhov's to Natasha Rostova, and Nikolai Rostov's to Princess Maria Bolkonskaya. Here the people do not yet appear as an active force in the struggle against Napoleon's army; the "people's war" is missing; nor do we see brought out the figure of Platon Karatayev, in whom Tolstoy was later to see an embodiment of the people. It was only gradually, as the work progressed, that *War and Peace* began to emerge as an imposing epic of popular valour and glory, but without losing its originally planned character as a family chronicle.

II

THE epic *War and Peace* was, however, still devoted to Russia's past, and therefore could not to any great extent reflect the problems of the day. These found a far more frequent reflection in Tolstoy's later works, from *Anna Karenina* onwards. This last is closely integrated with the 1870s when it was written.

Yet *Anna Karenina* had been planned solely on the moral and psychological plane. According to A. S. Tolstaya's notes, its theme was to be the destiny of "a married woman, of elevated rank, who has lost herself". The task Tolstoy set himself was that of "making this woman an object simply of compassion and not of condemnation".

The conception of the idea dates from the end of February 1870, but it was not until three years later, in March 1873, that Tolstoy began work on it, still concentrating exclusively on the moral and psychological problem. The subject was still, on S. A. Tolstaya's evidence, to be "a wife's infidelity and the whole drama involved".

A large quantity of rough material connected with *Anna Karenina* has come down to us, including rough drafts of the opening chapters and an early short outline of the whole work, in which only a skeleton plan of single chapters was mapped out. This skeleton plan gives a good idea of the framework within which the subject was expected to develop. It was determined by the original scheme of showing an unfaithful wife who loses herself but is to be pitied and not condemned. She is young and full of frustrated vitality, with a passionate longing to be loved, while her husband, a mild and kindly man, is a dullard, absent-minded and fussy. He is incapable of making an impression either on his wife or on the world they live in. When she meets a handsome young officer whose virile charm arouses all her latent instincts of womanly love, she flings her cap over the mill and fights boldly and insolently for her happiness, with an utter disregard of moral obstacles.

The painful introspection and agonising self-restraint which characterise Anna's behaviour in the final version are missing in the early ones, which show her overstepping normal moral standards without pity for her indulgent husband's grief and suffering, and treating the accepted standards of a married woman's conduct with contempt. She tells shameless lies both to her husband and to his kind and beloved sister (who in the later versions is replaced by the repellently sanctimonious Countess Lydia Ivanovna), and at times flaunts the freedom of her ideas on love and her improper conduct. She is a "fiend" in woman's shape; there is a "devilish radiance" in her appearance, and her soul is resolved to stop at nothing for her love's sake. There is something displeasing and shocking in the infernal woman Anna appears to be in the first stage of Tolstoy's work.

Yet in spite of all this she is pitiful in her lovesick madness. Neither Anna nor Vronsky finds happiness in the love affair. Society turns its back on them, while their acceptance by those who do receive them—freethinking, nihilist-minded, ill-bred writers, musicians and artists—gives them no joy. Anna cannot forget what a false position she is in; and she is tormented by jealousy. She attempts various ways of breaking out of her isolation. She endeavours, with her beauty and her smart clothes, to make an impression and to attract men, to "build up for herself an eminence from which to despise those who despise her"; but all this is foreign to her nature. All that remains to her is the purely physical relationship with her lover, a life of luxury, and "the ghost", the abandoned husband, "a gaunt, stooping old man who vainly strives to express a shining happiness on his wrinkled countenance". Anna cannot bear such a life as this, and ends by killing herself.

It is not Karenin's fault, even in this early embodiment of Tolstoy's idea, that she "has lost herself" and become an unfaithful wife. True, she is selfish and unfeeling towards her pathetic though kindly husband; but this is because it is beyond her strength to master her passion and resist the power of attraction of such a love as she has never felt for her husband, who has been ill served by nature and is quite lacking in the ability to inspire love. Even in one of the early openings to the novel there appears a biblical saying calling for charity to the unfaithful wife and denying men's right to judge her. To begin with, this saying (referring to the judgment of God, not man, on a wife who betrays her husband) is taken direct from Schopenhauer, and reads "Vengeance is mine"; later the exact Bible text is given, "Vengeance is mine: I will repay." Once written in, this was not later removed, although it was far from covering the subsequently much more complex content of the novel.

As the work proceeded, Tolstoy diverged greatly from his original scheme for the characters of Anna and Karenin. At every stage, Anna's character gained in moral wealth, while Karenin's dwindled away until he became a

pedantic, conceited, dried-up bureaucrat, trying to regulate his family life on the same principles as his office.

In the final version Tolstoy presents the tragedy of a sensitive young woman who tries to follow the dictates of her vital instincts and is destroyed by the stranglehold of the social and moral order whose most typical representatives are her unloved husband and the aristocratic circle in which she moves. The truth of a warm, restless woman's heart, unable to bear the overwhelming burden imposed on it, is contrasted with the mechanical and soulless moral attitude of Karenin and his social circle, and with the formal conventional rectitude of Vronsky's conduct.

Parallel to the Anna-Karenin-Vronsky pattern there emerges with equal force the Levin-Kitty pattern, which in the main reflects Tolstoy's personal relations with his fiancée (later his wife) and his own spiritual quest and approaching spiritual crisis.

By involving the personal life story of a woman who had "lost herself" with a description of the life and spiritual experiences of Levin against the background of his relationship with Kitty, Tolstoy was inevitably led to introduce a topical element. The main reason for this was the fact that Tolstoy himself (Levin's prototype) responded eagerly to the most important problems then agitating the minds and feelings of Russian society. Lenin, in his essay on *Tolstoy and his Times*, had good reason to use a quotation from *Anna Karenina* to make clear "the nature of the watershed in Russian history" represented by the half-century between 1861 and 1905; he considered that it "would be difficult to think of an apter summing-up of the 1861-1905 period" than that expressed in Levin's thought "everything here has been stirred up and now is just settling down". (Lenin, *Works*, 4th Ed. Vol. 17, p. 26.)

In *Anna Karenina* the life of landowner and peasant after the Reforms, with all the upheavals and economic stratifications taking place, found its liveliest and most convincing reflection. The formation of a new stage in capitalist relationships is enacted before our eyes as we follow the description of the careers of Levin, of his brothers, of Koznyshov, Vronsky, Oblonsky, the Shcherbatsky family, the landowner Sviyazhsky, the *kulak* Ryabinin, the famous Petersburg lawyer and all the ordinary peasants. The intimate life of the characters is projected against a background of the deep social contradictions of the times which ultimately determine their fate. The title and epigraph of the novel, which correspond to the scope of the subject as originally planned, are quite inadequate to cover the content of the final version.

Anna Karenina was written during 1873-7, and as the work proceeded Tolstoy made his own comments on much of what was then exercising the minds of Russian society and finding a reflection in the press. Scientific and philosophical problems, artistic questions, historical and political events and facts from the life of society were reflected in one way or another.

We find reproduced, for instance, the arguments between Russian scientists and philosophers over the borderline between psychological and physiological phenomena, arguments developed mainly in the pages of *Vestnik Yevropy* (European Herald) in the years 1872-4. Levin, who is interested in natural science, is himself *au fait* with the progress of these debates. He also criticises Tyndall's theory of heat: Tyndall's books had been published in Russian translation in the late sixties and early seventies. The landowner Sviyazhsky converses with Levin on the theory of education put forward by Spencer in an article published in Russian translation in 1874 in *Znaniye* (Knowledge). Sviyazhsky also talks of the "Schultz-Delitzsch trend" and the "Mulhausen system" which was occupying the best minds of Europe, and of the vast literature on the labour question being produced by the Lassalleans. (A book of essays by Lassalle was issued in a Russian translation by V. Zaitsev in 1870.) He also tries to interest Levin in a magazine article on the causes of

the partition of Poland. In the early seventies this question was attracting the attention of a number of Russian historians, headed by Kostomarov ; in 1874 *Vestnik Yevropy* published an essay on the subject by Shchekbalsky, which would seem to be the one referred to in the novel.

Karenin reads a booklet about a journey to China, evidently that made by the famous traveller P. Y. Pyasetsky, described in a booklet published in 1874. He reads an essay on Etruscan inscriptions, probably the article on the subject by Michel Bréal which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1874. Anna reads Taine's "latest book", that is *L'Ancien Régime*, the first volume of which appeared in 1870. In the rough drafts for the novel she also reads "the serious books then in vogue" by Tocqueville, Carlyle and Luce. The *Collected Works* of the two former appeared in the original languages in the sixties and seventies, while Luce's most popular work, *Questions of Life and the Spirit*, appeared in English in 1874 and in Russian translation in 1876. Prince Lvov, concerned over his son's education, reads Buslayev's textbook of Russian grammar, which appeared in 1869. Over dinner at Oblonsky's, in one of the rough drafts, a conversation takes place about wifely infidelity, with reference to the controversy on the question between Dumas *fils* and Girardin which was conducted in the French press in 1871-2. (In the final version the argument is conducted more abstractly, on woman's rights and duties, without reference to the French writers.) At the Shcherbatskys' there are arguments over spiritualism, which was of particular interest to certain circles in Russian society from the seventies onwards ; Karenin turns to a visiting spiritualist charlatan for help in solving his family difficulties. At the same time, in his trouble and confusion of spirit, he tries, with Countess Lydia, to find support in the theory of salvation through faith alone, without good works. This theory was preached by the famous Lord Radstock, who came to Russia in 1874-5 and acquired zealous disciples in high social circles there, notably one V. A. Pashkov, who founded the Pashkovite sect.

Many topics of the day and current events in the realm of art are reflected in the novel. Like many other passages, that describing the meeting of Vronsky and Anna with the painter Mikhailov in Italy is only loosely linked with the general plot, and could easily have been omitted, but Tolstoy needed it to express his views on the basic problems of pictorial art, which were then being discussed. Mikhailov and his realistic technique, particularly apparent in his depiction of Christ before Pilate, probably refer to the personality and work of I. N. Kramskoy, who in 1872 painted *Christ in the Desert*, where the humanised conception of the figure of Christ is very close to that of Mikhailov. In 1873 Kramskoy painted his famous portrait of Tolstoy, and, according to Kramskoy himself, they carried on long conversations on problems of art. These may well have been reflected in the novel.

The "Ivanov-Strauss-Renan sort of attitude to Christ and to religious painting", with which Golenischchev reproaches Mikhailov, was also characteristic of N. G. Gé, who painted *The Last Supper* (1863), *The Herald of the Resurrection* (1867) and *Christ in the Garden of Gethsemane* (1868). Tolstoy made Gé's personal acquaintance only in 1882, but must have known him as an artist considerably earlier.

During the visit to Anna of Levin and Oblonsky, a discussion arises on a new trend in art, new illustrations to the Bible by a French artist. This appears to refer to Doré's illustrations to the Bible, which appeared in 1866. Anna talks of the triumph of the realist trend in art and literature, particularly in Zola and Daudet, whose novels began to appear in the early seventies. At the ball, Vronsky and Kitty talk of the future national theatre, which was much spoken of after the Polytechnical Exhibition of 1872, which included a People's Theatre accessible to all. There are references in the novel to the

singers Neilson, Patti and Luca, who sang in Moscow and Petersburg in the seventies, and enjoyed great success. Levin, on hearing a concert, expresses his views in conversation with Pestsov on the shortcomings of the Wagnerian school, which he sees as music encroaching on the preserves of another art. As an example of a mistake of the same kind in another sphere, he quotes a sculptor who had the idea of carving the "shades" of a poet's literary creations in marble to surround the pedestal on which stood the figure of the poet himself. The sculptor who surrounded the figure of a poet with the visible shades of characters from his poems was Antokolsky, who exhibited his projected monument to Pushkin at the Academy of Arts in 1875.

Finally, the novel echoes the latest events of the day. In Betsy's salon there is much talk on conscription, introduced by the *Ukase* of January 1, 1874. Karenin condemns the extreme harshness of the treatment of the Bashkirs, who in the early seventies were being particularly cruelly oppressed by the local administration. At a dinner at Oblonsky's there is a discussion on the advantages of classical or non-classical education, an echo of the popular feeling which ran high when the new regulation of June 21, 1871, was introduced for secondary schools; under this regulation the teaching of classical languages in schools which had them in the curriculum was to be intensified as a check to subversive thought, and only pupils from such schools (*gymnasii*) were to be admitted to universities.

At Katavasov's a conversation takes place on the university question; this echoes the sharp dissensions within the teaching staff of Moscow University in 1867, which resulted in the resignation of three young professors. During Levin's visit to Countess Bol, the talk turns on a court case involving a foreigner, whose sentence is expected to take the form of deportation. There is here an obvious hint at the trial, a *cause célèbre*, of the railway trickster Strusberg, who was arrested in Moscow in 1875, tried and sentenced to exile in Siberia, but thanks to his foreign citizenship was eventually deported.

The greatest matter of social interest at this period was, of course, the "Slav question". In Tolstoy's words, this "replaced the questions of the nonconformists, of our American friends, of the Samara famine". That is to say, as a topic of conversation it ousted discussions on the celebration in 1875 of the merging of the Uniats with the Orthodox Church, on the arrival in 1866 of an American delegation (to congratulate Alexander I on his fortunate escape from Karakozov's attempt on his life, and to express gratitude for Russia's intervention in the American Civil War), and on the concern aroused by the terrible famine in Samara province in 1873.

After the outbreak, in June 1876, of war (in which Russian volunteers took part) between Turkey and the Serbs and Montenegrins, the "Slav question" had become a burning topic. Tolstoy had been opposed to the volunteer movement from the start, but when Russia declared war on Turkey on April 1, 1877, he wrote to Tolstaya: "The less I care for the Serbian craze, the more the real war affects and interests me."

It is of course the volunteer movement in the Slav cause, with Levin's spiritual crisis, that forms the central theme of the eighth and last part of *Anna Karenina*. Katkov, editor of *Russky Vestnik*, in which the novel was appearing, objected to printing attacks on the volunteer movement, but Tolstoy (who in his rough drafts of the eighth part, or *Epilogue* as it was called, had used even stronger language to express his opinions on the "Slav question" than in the final text) was so determined that he had no hesitation in breaking with Katkov and publishing this part as a separate volume.

To such an extent as this did Tolstoy widen the framework of the book originally planned as merely a novel on the fate of an unfaithful wife.

III

IN the late eighties and early nineties Tolstoy was much interested in the relations between the sexes. He wrote several articles on the subject as well as *The Kreutzer Sonata* and *The Devil*. It was at this time that he began his *Konev Story*, which later grew into *Resurrection*. His feelings on this subject were particularly strong in that it concerned some intimate episodes in his own life which he greatly deplored.

The most autobiographical of these works was *The Devil*. He wrote the rough draft in a fortnight, after which he did not touch it for twelve years, carefully concealing it from his wife. It was only some eighteen months before his death that he added a second version of the conclusion and made a few slight alterations; the exceptionally intimate nature of the story evidently kept him from further work on it.

It was a different matter with regard to *The Kreutzer Sonata* and *The Konev Story*, in which the autobiographical moment was far less important than in *The Devil*.

The Kreutzer Sonata was based on a story told to Tolstoy by Andreyev-Burlak, the actor, about a jealous husband's murder of his wife. Tolstoy worked on it at intervals for about two years or more, and produced nine versions. The first, which is closest to the original scheme, is a succinct and dynamic novel, unburdened by the moralising element introduced by Pozdneev's lengthy ratiocinations, which take up so much space in the final version. Gradually, as work on the story progressed, the characters underwent important alterations, and the moralising element grew greater from one version to the next. From being merely psychological, the novel became also socially critical, its criticism being directed against the moral family principles of the privileged classes.

The original scheme was thus enlarged as a result both of the author's own meditations and of the stimulus he received in the course of the work from others who shared his opinions.

The Konev Story, begun in 1889 and planned, like *Anna Karenina*, on the moral and psychological plane, was intended to answer the question of the moral responsibility of a seducer towards his victim. It seems that at first Tolstoy did not even intend to make his description of the trial denunciatory. This appears from an entry made in his diary six months after he had started work on the novel. "As I worked it came to me that the Konev story must begin with the trial; and next day I added that the whole stupidity of the trial must be denounced." A few days later he again writes in the diary that he must show up the "judicial falsehood" of the trial.

But after writing a few pages of the new beginning, which contained a characterisation of Nekhludov but nothing about the trial, he abandoned the novel, which he had now entitled *Resurrection*, for several years. Early in 1891 he planned to write a long novel, which was to include most of his still-unrealised schemes, among them that of *Resurrection*. This novel was to be composed in the light of his "present outlook". But six months later he writes in the diary: "I have decided to give up writing. I have reread all my artistic beginnings. Everything is bad. If I am to write, I must begin all over again, more truthfully, with no inventing."

After this he did not take up any of his draft work for four years; but when he resumed his writing in the spring of 1895 it was *Resurrection* that most appealed to him. After making several fresh starts and combining the new beginning with previous drafts, he finished the rough draft by July 1, 1895. At least, the groundwork of the Konev story seemed to him to be finished. Yet this first version is still very different from the final version, and a great deal

shorter. It consists almost exclusively of scenes directly concerned with Nekhludov's relations with Katusha Maslova. Only in the trial scene, and in the episode of Nekhludov's visit to his estate to distribute his land to the peasants on Henry George principles, is there any criticism of the social structure, and it is expressed with far less vigour than in the following versions and the sixth and final one. None of the episodes concerning political convicts occur, nor does that of the religious service in the prison chapel, nor do Nekhludov's efforts to obtain a retrial. In this early version he has no thought of a retrial, but after Katusha's condemnation he marries her, accompanies her to Siberia and thence escapes with her abroad, to settle finally in London. How widely this version differs from the final one may be judged by the fact that after I had published it for the first time in 1933 it was translated into French, published under a fancy title and described as a "wonderful unpublished novel by Tolstoy", with an explanation that the MS had been discovered in the cellar of Tolstoy's house at Yasnaya Polyana.

The first version underwent a number of corrections and additions; the trial scenes and those of Nekhludov's meetings with the peasants on his estate were more sharply etched in, but by and large the subject and content as a whole were scarcely changed. Then Tolstoy laid the work aside for two years and a half. He returned to it in the middle of 1898, when he decided to sell the novel and devote the proceeds to helping the Dukhobors to emigrate to Canada. He threw himself with great energy into the work of revision; as the novel passed through numerous MSS and proofs, it was transformed into a significant topical work, touching on many political and social questions and depicting the impoverished peasantry, the stages on the road of transported convicts, the world of ordinary criminals and of the sectaries, Siberian exile and its victims the revolutionaries. It included a spirited indictment of the tribunals, the Church, the administration, the aristocratic upper strata of society, and the entire social and state structure of Tsarist Russia as a whole. The psychologically false epilogue, describing Nekhludov's marriage to Katusha, was replaced by a far more convincing one showing Katusha's real moral resurrection by the linking of her fortunes to those of an exiled revolutionary. The novel's artistic value and its power and conviction of psychological analysis grew from one version to the next. Bits of naturalism which cropped up in some of the drafts were eliminated from the final text. In this novel Tolstoy manifests "the soberest realism" by tearing away "any and every sort of mask".

The amazing increase in protestation in the novel is undoubtedly due to Tolstoy's energetic reaction to the persecution of the Dukhobors by the Russian Government and Church. This persecution made him feel even more sharply and intensely than before just how monstrous the whole system of absolutism was, the repressive measures enforced against those of nonconformist belief being only a single case typifying the general order of things. At this period Tolstoy showed particular interest in material descriptive of the system of administrative repression used by the Tsarist Government. He requested information on various points from lawyers of his acquaintance, in particular V. A. Maklakov and N. V. Davydov. He twice visited the private flat of Vinogradov, governor of the Butyrskaya prison, to collect facts on prison organisation; he may well have visited the prison; and he asked S. F. Russova to describe the term she served in Kharkov prison, afterwards using the description in the novel, in Rantseva's account of her prison experiences. He addressed similar requests for descriptions of prison life to Z. G. Ruban-Shchurovskaya, who had been imprisoned in the Peter and Paul Fortress, and to others. For his description of the execution of Lozinsky and Rozovsky (hanged in 1880), he made use of manuscript memoirs by an unknown, which were copied out by N. N. Gé junior specifically for the work on *Resurrection*.

that Tolstoy was then doing. Tolstoy also read books on prison and exile by Yadrintsev, Melshin and Kennan.

Some of the episodes exposing the evils of the times were suggested to him by facts which he himself witnessed. For instance, in the fifth and penultimate version of *Resurrection* he introduced an episode of a woman prisoner in the Peter and Paul Fortress who went mad, "screamed wildly and beat her head against the wall". He introduced this episode while influenced by the news that M. F. Vetrova had set herself on fire in the Trubetskoy bastion of the fortress : this was in February 1899. He had met Vetrova shortly before, and the news of her fate upset him very much, as may be seen from his letters to Koni and Chertkov. This episode was deleted from the final version, apparently because Tolstoy felt that he had drawn a too nakedly realistic picture of human suffering.

The account of Nekhludov's interventions in Petersburg on behalf of the religious sectaries has a real-life counterpart in Tolstoy's own efforts in 1897-8 to help the Samara Molokans, whose children were being taken away from them to "protect" them from the parents' influence. He twice wrote to Nicholas II on the subject, asked Koni for help in the matter, and published his own protest in the *St. Petersburg Gazette* ; later, his daughter Tatiana went to St. Petersburg to see Pobedonostsev, who appears in the novel under the name of Toporov. Tatiana Tolstaya's interview with Pobedonostsev, which she describes in her diary, coincides in a number of details with the description of Nekhludov's meeting with Toporov.

The final version of the end of the novel was under way before Tolstoy inserted the episode on the ferry, in which appears an old man who is a sectary. The material for this episode was provided by a letter Tolstoy received (in October 1899) from A. V. Vlasov, of the "Runners" sect. The words spoken by the old man in the novel coincide exactly in places with Vlasov's own words in the letter.

The following minor detail is also interesting. In *Resurrection*, among the prisoners in the same cell as Katusha is a woman once in charge of a railway signal-box, who is serving a sentence for having failed to come out on the line with her flag and thus having caused an accident. In a letter to N. V. Davydov, Chairman of the Moscow District Court, written while working on *Resurrection*, Tolstoy stated : "The woman making this petition is coming up for trial in the District Court for failure to discharge her duties at a railway signal-box ; as a result of her negligence, a man was run over. What do you think ? Is her position serious ? Should she employ counsel ? What can be done to help her ?"

The desire to write "a broad, free novel, like *Anna Karenina*", of which he wrote in the aforementioned letter to Rusanov, a novel which would easily encompass all he felt he had understood "from an unusual new point of view, one which will be of service to mankind" (and plans of this sort were in his mind in 1891, as the entry we have quoted from his diary shows), was fulfilled by the creation of *Resurrection*, which, just as Tolstoy intended, brings together all his various creative plans and ideas—all, that is, but one, which had greatly attracted him even in the seventies : the idea of writing about the peasant colonists, the "Russian Robinson Crusoes", who were building themselves a new life in new homes. So now Tolstoy, who had previously attempted to link this theme with that of the Decembrists, and then with a novel on the times of Peter the Great, thinks of connecting it with *Resurrection* by developing it in the sequel. Only six months after the book's publication he makes a diary entry, the meaning of which is not altogether clear : "Want terribly to write a novel-sequel to *Resurrection*, but epic rather than dramatic ; Nekhludov's life as a peasant." A few years later, in 1904, he expounds his plan more fully in another entry : "Was in Pirogovo. . . . On the way there saw

a harness yoke bound together with bast, and remembered my idea of writing about 'Robinson Crusoes': a colonist village society. Felt I wanted to write Book Two about Nekhludov. How he works, gets tired, aristocratic attitude to life crops up, he is tempted by woman, falls, how he goes wrong. All against background of a Crusoe-like community." But Tolstoy never even started to bring this plan into being.

When starting on a given literary work, especially one planned on broad lines, Tolstoy, like Pushkin, "did not yet clearly distinguish . . . the distant prospect of the unfettered novel". To get a clear picture of his characters he had to live with them and inwardly assimilate them. "Just as you come to know people by living with them," he wrote in his diary (1895) regarding his work on *Resurrection*, "so you come to know the characters you have created by living with them."

The tremendous activity of his intellectual and moral consciousness, and his quick social instinct, kept his mind constantly on the alert and opened up hitherto unsuspected broad horizons to his artistic creativeness. "Do you know," he said to A. V. Zhirkevich, "I often sit down to write something and then suddenly come out on to a much wider path." Even earlier, in the afterword to *The Kreutzer Sonata*, he had confessed: "I never expected the course of my reflections to lead me where it did. I was horrified by my conclusions and shrank from believing in them, but I could not help doing so."

Tolstoy did his best in his work to follow the rule he himself had set for writers, that of endeavouring to understand "what is natural to all mankind", "not to live a selfish life, but to take part in the common life of humanity". He loved his subjects, and wrote only on things he could not keep silent about. This is why real vivid human life, and true uninvented human interests, as he understood them, tempestuously invaded his literary schemes and brought into them a wealth of material bound up with the acute and vital problems stirring the society of his day.

He may not always have been right in his judgment of what all mankind needs, and was perhaps best at negative criticism, yet what matters is the actual principle of his work as author, the endeavour to reflect everything that could arouse his readers' interest and feeling in the moral and social sphere, and to present in perfect artistic form his response to what he held to be the most serious and significant problems set by life. Herein lies Tolstoy's unquestionable greatness as man and as writer.

SCR Letter

Dear Member—

The Society may feel justly proud when it sees how the work in which it has been engaged for the past thirty years and more is now bearing fruit in increased cultural and scientific exchanges both in Britain and in the Soviet Union.

Alongside an increasing number of specialised exchanges which are being arranged direct between academic bodies, ministries and individuals, the Society is glad to be able to tell members that we shall be sponsoring the visits of a group of British orientalists and of theatrical personalities in the coming year, as well as arranging for individual lecturers in British education, documentary and scientific films and the British applied arts to visit the Soviet Union at the invitation of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (VOKS). From the end of November the Society will welcome to Britain a lecturer on Soviet technical education and lecturers on Soviet methods of painless childbirth and on the Soviet Arctic, each for a fortnight, and we would be glad of further suggestions for British lecturers, who must be of standing in their own fields.

The Society arranged during July two very successful events of a completely new kind. At the beginning of July we were honoured to welcome to a private tea-party a group of Soviet visitors—a poet, two dramatists, a film director and a theatrical historian. They were visiting Britain as tourists and were most anxious to meet their professional colleagues informally in a small group, so as to be able to ask many questions about British drama, cinema, literature and so on. We invited a group of leading literary and theatrical personalities, and the lively discussion, with some thirty British persons present, continued for over two hours.

On Sunday, July 23, at Kensington Square, we organised, at extremely short notice, a social evening with refreshments, to give SCR members an opportunity to meet over thirty Soviet citizens in the most varied professions. Our Soviet friends, in Britain as tourists, had had little opportunity during their very full tourist visit to talk informally to British people, and welcomed the chance to do so as guests of the Society. One hundred and thirty people crowded our music room and garden and the conversations were informal, enthusiastic and informative. We were privileged to welcome in this party soloists from the Leningrad Philharmonic, teachers and university lecturers, factory workers, composers and musicologists. A large number of the Soviet tourists spoke most excellent English, thus making the work of our invaluable voluntary interpreters a good deal easier than is usually the case. The evening concluded with solo numbers by Bluma Madorskaya, solo pianist of the Leningrad Philharmonic, and satirical songs sung with enormous gusto by Alexandra Yegorova, solo artist from the same Philharmonic, accompanied by pianist and composer Vera Armand. Mr. Richnell, the Honorary Secretary of the Society, produced a programme of old-time music-hall songs for our Soviet guests, presented by members of the administrative and library staff of the University of London. This very successful evening clearly points the way to new forms of activity for the Society during the tourist season.

SCR Summer School. Twenty-six members of the Society, old and new, of many trades and professions and all ages, sailed on the s.s. *Molotov* from London to Leningrad on August 10 for a round trip of seventeen days, including six days in Leningrad. This visit was the first of its kind since the war. The Society was fortunately able to obtain the services of Dr. R. W. Davies, who led discussions on board ship, and Mrs. Stella Jackson Galvin,

Assistant Editor of the *ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL*, accompanied the group as courier. Six major discussions were held on board ship, and Russian conversation classes were organised. Should this visit have proved successful, the Society will consider the organisation of specialised tourist visits next year; a scientists' Russian-language school in the Soviet Union is also under consideration. A London *Intourist* representative will soon be in London permanently, and this will make it much easier for the Society to discuss such matters on the spot. Practical suggestions from members would be welcomed.

The Society has always prided itself on the excellent factual information it has been able to make available for its members and for outside inquirers, using as its source the Library, Exhibition Department and Information Service. A valuable means of providing information is to be found in the Society's quarterly publication, the *ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL*, and in the specialised Soviet Information Bulletins on many subjects of interest to the British reader. It may be said in passing that members might consider subscriptions to these Bulletins for their friends and for themselves. Many foreign countries find them unique and valuable in the extreme, and for some our overseas sales exceed our domestic ones. Our publications sell widely in Australia, in the Union of South Africa, and in North and South America. But alongside this work of informing readers of events and discussions on Soviet material the Society has been receiving an ever-growing number of specialised inquiries for information and printed data on British arts and sciences and British institutions from a great number of specialised bodies and individual specialists in the Soviet Union. Space does not permit of a list of all such inquiries, but a selection of those we feel would be of the greatest interest to readers is given below. There are indications that Soviet professional bodies have a high regard for our care and attention in helping them in their requests.

Inquiries come through VOKS (the all-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries), requesting British pen friends for Soviet citizens, lists of books, photographs and plays. A set of photographs of places connected with British writers for a Moscow exhibition of English literature was obtained with the assistance and advice of our Honorary Secretary. The kindness of the assistant librarian at the Courtald Institute of Art (University of London) helped us in preparing a bibliography on Andrei Rublyev, famous Russian icon-maker, and in return we have been able to furnish the Institute with photographs and catalogues from the English art exhibition held in the summer of 1956 in Moscow.

The Society obtained for the Pushkin Theatre in Moscow copies of several English plays, in return for which they have sent us some dramatisations of Dickens and of Dostoevsky. The All-Russian Theatrical Society has sent us a detailed bibliographical list of Russian books on the theatre and has supplied us with detailed material for a production of Mayakovsky's *Bed Bug*.

The Academies of Medical Sciences and of Agricultural Sciences, and the USSR Academy of Sciences, have requested information which the Society has supplied, and we have been particularly happy to establish direct contact between I. Khalifman, the author of the book *Bees* (recently translated into English), and his colleagues in the bee-keeping world in Britain, by undertaking the translation of letters and other material for him and for them. Sampson Low, Marston & Co., publishers of many standard works of reference on ships, aircraft and railways, enlisted our assistance in obtaining authoritative material on Soviet railways, and the Great Soviet Encyclopaedia has acceded to our request with an excellent article and photographs, which the Society has undertaken to have translated. The Society arranged the translation of a survey article supplied from the same source in Moscow for a handbook on photography throughout the world to be published by Focal Press.

We have supplied material and translations for many firms and periodicals such as *World Sport* (journal of the British Olympics Committee) and others.

The co-operation of various publishing firms, including Constable & Co. and Penguin Books Ltd., the help of various theatres, including the Birmingham Repertory Theatre, the London and Bristol Old Vic companies, The Shaw Society, Mr. Kingsley Martin, Mr. Alan Chappelow, and others too numerous to list, was obtained in the detailed preparation of Shaw material for the centenary exhibition in Moscow. The Gabrielle Enthoven Collection at the Victoria and Albert Museum has loaned the Society a large number of items for this Moscow exhibition, and the British Film Institute arranged for stills from Shaw films to be made available.

The USSR Union of Soviet Writers has invited a group of British writers to attend the Shaw centenary celebrations in Moscow at the end of September, and the Society is making all the necessary arrangements for this group.

We are helping to obtain the services of many leading British specialists to write articles on their specialities for the Soviet cultural and scientific press.

Speakers from the Society continue to visit many other organisations, which avail themselves of the services of our specialists for evening meetings and day and weekend schools, and we urge our branches to consider the initiative shown by our Newcastle branch in proposing SCR lecturers for an extra-mural course on the Soviet Union in the university next autumn and winter.

The Royal Photographic Society showed an exhibition of Soviet photography for one month at its London house during June, and the exhibition is being widely booked all over the country. It goes for a month to Scotland in September, and items from it are being borrowed by many camera clubs. This exhibition came to us through VOKS, and our thanks are due to Mr. J. Allan Cash for help in the initial work.

The *Sunday Pictorial* national children's art exhibition left for the Soviet Union on a year's tour at the invitation of the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, in exchange for a year's tour of Britain by an exhibition of Soviet children's art, sponsored by the *Sunday Pictorial*. The Society was instrumental in organising this exchange, and hopes to arrange a graphic arts exhibition on an exchange basis in the coming months.

We have listed only a fraction of the work being done today by the Society as a whole and by its individual members, branches and specialised section committees, whose knowledge is invaluable. We hope we have indicated how important, varied and cumulative our work is.

Our Exhibition Department continues to supply a never-ending stream of requests for visual aids in schools and teaching institutions.

The Library receives over 100 journals in Russian and in English and a large number of newspapers, all of which are available on loan in addition to the many excellent books. Postal loans are possible for out-of-London members, and we urge members to make the facilities of our Library and most accurate information service more widely known.

During the past year we have run the most successful Russian-language classes we have ever had, and we shall be resuming them in late September. Our thanks are due to our most excellent and devoted tutors and pupils.

The Society has helped to make available translated information on Soviet technology and techniques, to make possible the publication of a specialised bulletin on this subject. From October 1956 we shall be printing our arts information bulletins—Literature, Music, Film, Theatre—in the form of a single printed bulletin entitled *Arts in the USSR*. This will make it possible for us to include the fine arts and items of general cultural interest. In addition to its regular publications, the Society plans publication of several booklets.

D. T. RICHNELL, *Hon. Secretary.*
ELEANOR FOX, *Secretary.*

Book Reviews

SIXTEENTH-CENTURY TRADING COMPANY

The Early History of the Russia Company, 1553-1603. T. S. Willan. (Manchester University Press, 1956, 30/-).

THE history of Anglo-Russian relations virtually begins in 1553 when an English trading company, formed to explore a north-east passage to Cathay, discovered instead the sea route to the Russian port of St. Nicholas on the White Sea and opened up direct trade with the empire of Ivan IV. The Russia Company, as it came to be called, obtained remarkably extensive privileges from the tsars, and for the rest of the century dominated, and at times almost monopolised, the trade between Russia and western Europe. It enjoyed freedom from customs duties in Russia and the right to maintain trading establishments in Moscow and other towns and to trade down the Volga to Persia. The tsars were willing to grant such privileges, not only because they wished to keep open a trade route free from the interference of hostile Baltic powers, but also because they hoped to obtain English arms, English skilled craftsmen and, if possible, an English political alliance against their Baltic enemies, Queen Elizabeth, on the other hand, while anxious to support an influential body of English merchants and to promote a trade which yielded essential naval stores, was determined to avoid embarrassing political commitments. In these circumstances the maintenance of the company's privileges required constant diplomatic negotiations, conducted in the Queen's name but at the company's expense; and in this period at least the history of the company embraces the history of Anglo-Russian relations. It has, however, another distinct interest, for its pioneering experiments in joint stock, organisation and finance form an important chapter in English economic history.

In this thorough and scholarly work Dr Willan seeks to elucidate both the complicated financial history of the company and the negotiations with successive tsars in which it was involved. This is no easy task, for the company's own records were destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666, and the story has to be pieced together from scattered sources. The author's account of diplomatic relations is both lively and lucid, and his reconstruction of the company's finances, which supplements and corrects in important respects the conclusions of earlier historians, is probably as complete as the surviving evidence per-

mits. He does not attempt an equally full description of the conditions in which the company operated in Russia, and says little of the industrial activities in which it engaged there. Clearly no definitive history of the company's operations in Russia can be written without an examination of Soviet archives. Dr Willan says in his preface that he does not know whether or not relevant manuscript material exists in the USSR; and it is not clear whether the virtual absence of reference to Soviet secondary works is due to the lack of relevant work or to the author's lack of access to it.* At all events, this seems to furnish an example of the benefits which must accrue to historical scholarship from an extension of Anglo-Soviet cultural contact. Soviet archives may or may not add much to Dr. Willan's story; but it is to be hoped that the situation will soon cease to exist in which a first-class work of scholarship in the field of Anglo-Russian relations by a distinguished historian can be written without knowledge of whether relevant material exists in Soviet archives.

A. L. MERSON.

DOCTOR IN RUSSIA

Window on Russia: A Doctor in the USSR. Maurice S. Miller (Lawrence & Wishart, 5/6).

DOCTOR Maurice Miller was one of fifteen doctors who spent three weeks recently in the Soviet Union. The party visited Leningrad, Moscow, Tashkent, Samarkand, Stalingrad and Sochi on the Black Sea—a remarkably full itinerary even for most travel-hardened delegates. Their main purpose was to look at the Soviet health services, and the author has much to say about these, both in praise and criticism. But he did much more than look at hospitals. Readers will find in this little book some information on such matters as the Russian theatre, churches, synagogues, trains, aeroplanes, housing, the current prices of bread, caviar, Chinese silk and the domestic problems of Tamerlane. The validity of some of the criticism—the ubiquitous pictures of Stalin, of the wedding-cake architecture and the wretchedness of the dance music in cafés—is now generally recognised. Other views, stated with equal conviction, are, however, much more contentious.

The doctor wields a lively pen; the book

* Academician Sidorov, in his *Survey of Soviet Historical Science at the International Congress of Historians in Rome, 1955*, does not mention any works on this subject. See Bibliography, in *ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL*, Vol XVII, No. 1 (Spring 1956).

is entertaining, and should appeal to the growing number of people in all walks of life who are becoming interested in the Soviet Union and like introductions by non-partisan observers. Just the thing for the holidays. It is sure to add enjoyment to a few hours in a deck-chair, on lawn or beach.

L. CROME.

TAMBURLAINE'S JESTER

Adventures in Bukhara. Leonid Solovyev. (Lawrence & Wishart, 9/6.)

HOJA Nasr-ed-Din has long been no stranger to the western reader with oriental interests. Seventy years ago that invaluable index of curious and amusing books the *Bibliographia arcana* listed a Brussels publication called *Le sottisier de Nasr-Eddin-Hodja, bouffon de Tamber-lar*: being a collection, translated from the Turkish, of the adventures and sayings of this Til Eulenspiegel with an Arabian Nights background. In 1938 the Soviet Russian writer and translator Leonid Solovyev published a new version of some of the legends of this *Disturber of the Peace* (as he called the book, using one of the Hoja's traditional "titles"), who is as well-known a figure in the folk-lore of the Turkic-speaking peoples of Central Asia as he is in that of Anatolia. This work has now been translated, by Tatiana Shebunina, for the entertainment of readers who enjoy tales in which social criticism is laced with picaresque and erotic adventure. Irrepressible and unendingly resourceful, Hoja Nasr-ed-Din risks mutilation and death to outwit a cruel Emir and a flint-hearted usurer, to steal the concubine of the former and free the debt-slaves of the latter.

The translation is so excellent, evoking so faithfully the atmosphere of the original, that it is hard to find fault with it. What a pity, though, that the hardy old solecism "vice-regent," for "vicegerent," appears on page 198 (representing *namestnik* in the original); and that so virile a character as the Hoja should be made to talk of paying a "dowry" to his intended father-in-law, when it is *kalym*—"bride-price"—that is in question (page 129).

BRIAN PEARCE

SHORT HISTORY

A Short History of Russia. By R. D. Charques. (Phoenix House, 18s.)

MR. R. D. CHARQUES, the literary critic and translator of Fadjev's *Razgrom* (as *The Nineteen*), has written a short history of Russia in one slim volume, intended for the reader with little or no previous knowledge of the subject. The book is less than half the length of

Sir Bernard Pares's *History of Russia*; inevitably, as the author admits, he has had to condense his treatment of some aspects of the theme severely, notably foreign relations and economic history. One misses, too, the detailed accounts of significant episodes and pen-pictures of outstanding individuals, and the wealth of quotations from contemporary sources, that are characteristic of Pares's book and enable the reader to perceive something of the colour and depth of Russian history.

Nevertheless, within the strict limits imposed by the book's shortness, a very readable and instructive essay has been written, giving a clear general survey. The very brevity of the treatment may stimulate the reader's desire to learn more—as, for example, when, writing of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries, Mr. Charques points out that "in some ways Kievan Russia reached a higher level of civilization than was attained in these centuries in the West". To some extent the need for compression causes the most important facts to stand out the more clearly: the significance of the two milliard francs French loan of April 1906 in enabling the Tsar to defy the Duma is unmistakable in Mr. Charques's account, whereas it is easily overlooked in Pares's, for instance.

The list of his previously published works given by the author does not include *The Soviets and the Next War* (1932) or *Profits and Politics* (in collaboration, 1934). This is all the more regrettable in that the account of the civil war and intervention following the Bolshevik Revolution which is included in *A Short History of Russia* neglects to consider some major facts that were dealt with in those earlier books. A reader of this latest of Mr. Charques's works might be forgiven for getting the impression that Allied intervention began only after the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, that the revolt of the Czechoslovak Legion was defensive in character, and that Allied intervention was only a secondary factor in the civil war. Yet, when he wrote *Profits and Politics*, Mr. Charques knew about the "secret Franco-British arrangement drawn up a month or so after the Bolshevik seizure of power, for the division of a large part of European Russia into zones of influence" (page 221); in *The Soviets and the Next War* he wrote of how "the Czechoslovak battalions, commanded by counter-revolutionary officers and subsidised by the Allies, opened up the European attack on Bolshevism almost immediately after the November Revolution" (page 20); and in those days he acknowledged that it was "Allied armed intervention which alone gave the civil war its continued impetus" (*Profits and Politics*, page 220).

BRIAN PEARCE

The Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR

CULTURAL relations are a means towards understanding between peoples, in which the private person has a part to play no less important than that of governments, diplomats and official bodies.

With every year the importance of these relations increases.

The Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR has for more than thirty years enabled the private individual—artist, writer, professional worker, scholar or scientist—to contribute to and benefit from the fostering of cultural relations between Great Britain and the Soviet Union.

The Society plays a unique part by helping to make the achievements of British art, medicine, science and general culture known throughout the USSR, not only to the general public, but also to the leading personalities in Soviet professional and artistic life.

At the same time, the Society, through its varied activities, gives the private citizen in the United Kingdom opportunities to become personally acquainted with Soviet cultural developments and to meet Soviet scientists, artists and men of letters.

The SCR invites you to take part in its activities and make use of its facilities, and to contribute, through membership of the Society, to a fruitful growth of reciprocal cultural relations between this country and the USSR.

**For further information on the work of the Society, its
branches and its professional Sections, please write to**

*The Hon. Secretary,
Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR,
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